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HISTORY
OF THE
UNITED STATES,
TO WHICH IS PREFIXED
A BRIEF HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF OUR ENGLISH ANCESTORS,
FROM THE DISPERSION AT BABEL, TO THEIR MIGRATION TO AMERICA; AND OF THE CONQUEST OF SOUTH AMERICA BY THE SPANIARDS.

BY NOAH WEBSTER, LL. D.



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VIEW OF THE U. S. CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON.

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Cyrus Williams

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PUBLISHED BY DURRIE & PECK.

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PREFACE.

This little volume, intended for the use of American youth, contains many facts not found in any other history of the United States. It begins with an account of the creation and of the dispersion of men, on the attempt to build Babel; and describes our ancestors, descendants of Japheth, in the wilds of Germany, as they were when the Romans conquered Gaul, before the christian era. A brief account is then given of the conquest of England by our Saxon ancestors, and of their gradual improvement in the arts of life, down to the Reformation. Then follows an account of the peopling of America, and a description of the character and manners of the aboriginals, both in Mexico and in the more northern latitudes. The origin of the Puritans and the causes of their migration to America are then stated.

The discoveries of various parts of America made by European navigators, and the first settlements are narrated with brevity. In the history of these settlements, of their progress, of the Indian wars, of the forms of government in the several colonies, of the revolutionary war, and of the measures which were pursued for obtaining the present constitution of the United States, the most authentic authorities have been

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consulted; and some facts are related from the personal knowledge of the writer. The brief exposition of the constitution of the United States, will unfold to young persons the principles of republican government; and it is the sincere desire of the writer that our citizens should early understand that the genuine source of correct republican principles is the BIBLE, particularly the New Testament, or the christian religion.

The *Advice to the Young*, it is hoped, will be useful in enlightening the minds of youth, in religious and moral principles, and serve, in a degree, to restrain some of the common vices of our country. Republican government loses half of its value, where the moral and social duties are imperfectly understood, or negligently practiced. To exterminate our popular vices is a work of far more importance to the character and happiness of our citizens, than any other improvements in our system of education.

An impartial history cannot be published during the lives of the principal persons concerned in the transactions related, or of their near connections, without being exposed to the charge of undue flattery or censure; and unless history is impartial, it misleads the student, and frustrates its proper object. Hence the following history concludes with the organization of the present constitution of the United States.

If this history should be read in schools, I would not recommend that the pupil should be

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required to commit entire paragraphs to memory; but that he should abridge them in writing, extracting only the principal facts, and reducing them within the compass of a few lines, which may be easily remembered and recited.

When the book is used only for learning to read and understand what is read, I would recommend that the pupil should have time to study his lesson before he reads to the teacher, and that he should be required to consult a dictionary for the explanation of words which he does not understand. In this case, as words often have different senses, he should be instructed to find the proper signification of the word in the paragraph in which it is used. This mode of study would accustom the pupil to exercise his mind in discriminating between the various applications of terms, and would be most efficacious in impressing upon his memory their different significations.

The practice of writing books for youth in the *household language of children*, is proper and useful for those who are learning to read; but as soon as words of common use become familiar to the eye, children should leave the style of puerility, and read only or chiefly a more elevated language; or that which is used by well educated people in adult years. The habit of using the peculiar phrases of children and vulgarisms should be counteracted as early in life as is practicable; otherwise such phrases will never be lost, but will often infect the language

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of polite conversation, in every period of future life. The practice of *reducing* language to the capacities of children, instead of *elevating* their understandings to the style of elegance, may be carried to an extent not warranted by just views of improvement.

History should be read with maps, which are to be found in all our bookstores and in most of our schools.

NEW-HAVEN, 1832.

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2. Teutonic and Gothic nations; description of our German ancestors.

3. Saxons; their conquest of England: character, manners, and gradual improvement till the Reformation.

4. The peopling of America by the aboriginals.

5. Description of the Mexicans.

6. Discovery of America; voyages to different parts of North America; grants and settlement of English colonies.

7. Origin of the Puritans; settlement of New England.

8. Indian Wars.

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ORIGIN

OF THE

HUMAN RACE.

SECTION I.

1. *Of the first man.* In the beginning, God created the heaven and the earth, and the sun, moon and stars. He created also grass, and other plants; and various animals for the use of man. And last of all he created the first man, called *Adam*, endowed him with rational faculties, and gave him dominion over the earth, and over the beasts of the field, the fishes of the sea and fowls of the air.

2. *Of the first woman.* The first woman, called Eve, was made by God as a helper to Adam. Being taken from Adam's body, she was presented to him, and received as his intimate companion, to share with him the toils, and the felicities of life. These were the progenitors of all the human race.

3. *First employment of man.* After Adam was created, God planted the garden of Eden, in which he placed the man to dress it and to keep it. Hence the cultivation of the earth was the first employment of man; as it is yet the principal, the most important and one of the most honorable of all occupations.

4. *Longevity of man.* In the first ages of the world, men lived to a great age. Most of the early patriarchs lived to the age of nine hundred years or

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more, and Methuselah, the oldest of them, lived to the age of nine hundred and sixty nine years.

5. *Of the flood.* Soon after men had multiplied upon the earth, they became extremely wicked, and so provoked their maker that he determined to destroy most of the race. For this purpose, he brought a flood upon the earth, which destroyed the whole race, except one family. This was the family of Noah, who was a righteous man, and who, by God's direction, constructed an ark, in which he and his wife, and his three sons and their wives, were preserved.

6. *Family of Noah.* Noah had three sons, Shem, Ham, and Japheth. The latter was the eldest son; and by the descendants of these three sons, the earth was re-peopled, after the flood. And to give assurance to Noah and his posterity that the earth should not be again overwhelmed with a deluge, God set the rainbow in the clouds, as a token of his covenant that he would not again destroy the human family.

7. *Dispersion of men.* In the first age of the world, the descendants of Noah constituted one family, and had the same language. But migrating from the east, they settled in the plain of Shinar; and there undertook to build a city and a tower that might reach to heaven, and thus exalt their renown and prevent their dispersion. This displeased God, and he confounded their language, so that they were compelled to abandon their project. This was the cause of their dispersion. The city which they attempted to bild was called Babel, that is, confusion.

8. *Division of the earth.* The three sons of Noah were the heads of three great families. The family of Shem settled on the great plains of Syria and Arabia. Of this family are the Chaldeans, Syrians and Arabians; and among these was Abraham, the father of the Hebrews or Israelites. The posterity of Ham peopled Egypt and other parts of Africa. From Japheth descended the inhabitants of the northern parts of Asia, and all the nations of Europe.

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9. *Descendants of Japheth.* The scripture informs us that Japheth had seven sons; Gomer, Magog, Madai, Javan, Tubal, Mesheck, and Tiras. Of these, Tiras is supposed to have settled Thrace, now a part of Turkey in Europe. Javan's descendants settled in Greece. The descendants of the other sons peopled some part of Persia, Asia Minor, and the countries about the Euxine and Caspian seas.

10. *Descendants of Javan.* Elisha, one of Javan's sons, is supposed to be Hellas in Greece; Spain is supposed, with good reason, to be intended by Tarshish; and the Rhodanim were undoubtedly the inhabitants of France on the Rhone; this name being contracted from Rhodan. The northern nations of Europe, called Teutons and Goths, who were ancestors of the Germans and Saxons, were the descendants of Gomer and his son Ashkenaz, and of Tiras. These descendants of Japheth's sons last named, migrated from the east very early, and from them descended the English, and their posterity in the United States.

11. *Primitive inhabitants of Britain.* The first inhabitants of Britain were of the race of Celts, who settled in Italy and Gaul, now France, and in Spain. These appear to have been the first inhabitants of the south of Europe. The Celts, or aboriginals of Britain, were conquered or supplanted by the Cymry or Cimbri, from Denmark and Holland, the ancestors of the Welsh; but their descendants or people of the same race remained in the north and west of Ireland, and in the Highlands of Scotland. Before the Christian era, the south part of Britain was possessed by tribes from Belgium, or the low countries on the continent.

12. *Varieties of the human race.* Although mankind are all descendants of one pair, Adam and Eve, yet great diversities now exist in the color, form and features of different nations. In classing the varieties of men, writers on natural history are not agreed

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But the following division into six classes or varieties, may be sufficient to present a tolerably correct view of the diversities of men, viz. the Lapland race, the Tartars, Hindoos, Negroes, Europeans and native Indians or aboriginals of America.

13. *Lapland race.* The extreme northern parts of Asia, Europe and America, are inhabited by the Samoids, Lapps, Greenlanders, Esquimaux, and other tribes of men quite different from the rest of the human race. They have small bodies, many of them four feet high or little more, a broad visage, a short, flat nose, eyes of a yellowish brown or dark color, the eye lids drawn towards the temples, the cheek bones high, the mouth very large, with thick lips, the head large, the hair black and straight, the skin of a dark grayish color, the voice thin and squeaking.

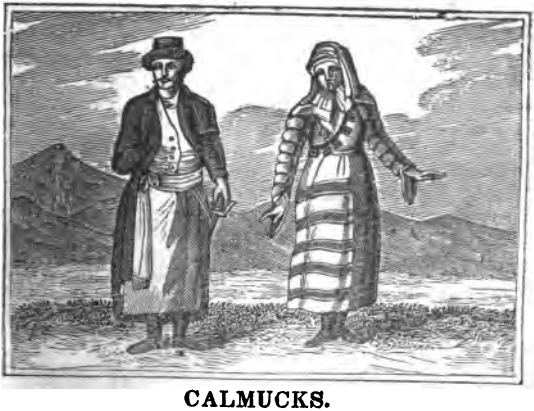


LAPLANDER TRAVELING IN A SLED.

14. *Tartars.* The Tartars inhabit the northern and central parts of Asia. They are of a middle size, strong and robust. The upper part of the face is broad, and wrinkled, even in youth; the nose is short

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and flat; the eyes small and deep in the head and sometimes separated by a distance of four inches; the cheek bones are very high; the lower part of the face narrow; the chin long and projecting; the teeth of an enormous size and separated; the eye brows thick and large; the face flat; the hair black, and the complexion of an olive color. They have little beard and short legs. Of this variety, the Calmuks are the most ugly.



CALMUCKS.

15. *Hindoos.* The Hindoo variety comprehends the inhabitants of the southern parts of Asia, and of the isles south of Asia. Their bodies are slender, the hair straight and black; the nose aqualine. In the northern parts of India, the color of the skin is olive, but in the southern parts, quite black. They come to maturity at an earlier age than the natives of cooler climates. The female Hindoos are wrinkled at thirty years of age. These people are cowardly and effeminate.

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16. *Negroes.* The inhabitants of the interior of Africa are black, with a smooth soft skin; the hair is short and woolly; the eyes, of a deep hazle; the nose flat and short; the lips thick and tumid; and the teeth, of an ivory whiteness. The body of the negroes is generally well formed and of full size, but the legs are often bent outwards, and the heel projects farther than that of Europeans.

17. *Europeans.* The most distinguished variety of men comprehends most of the inhabitants of Europe, the Georgians and Circassians in Asia, and the Turks; together with the descendants of Europeans in America. In the middle region of Europe and Asia, the inhabitants are of a clear white complexion; along the shores of the Mediterranean, their color has a shade of olive. This race of men are characterized by the size and symmetry of the body, the strength of the limbs, the vigor of the understanding, and by their improvements in science and the arts.



EUROPEANS.

18. *Natives of America.* The sixth variety of the human race comprehends all the natives or aborigin-

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als of America, except the Esquimaux. These are probably descendants from the Asiatics, as they greatly resemble the present inhabitants of the northern Chinese. Their bodies are straight, well made and of a good size; their skin, of a copper color; their hair straight and black; their beards thin; their noses flat; their cheek bones high, and their eyes small.



AMERICAN INDIANS.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who created the world and mankind? What was the name of mankind and the first man?

2. How was the first woman made, and what was her name?

3. What was the first employment of man?

4. What was the age of the first generations of men?

5. How were the inhabitants of the earth destroyed, and why? Who were preserved from destruction?—how and why?

6. How many sons had Noah? Which was the eld-

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est? and what sign was given that men should not be again destroyed?

7. How, when and why were men dispersed?

8. How was the earth divided?

9, 10. Who were the descendants of Japheth? What countries did they settle?

11. Who were the first inhabitants of Britain?

12. What are the principal varieties of the human race?

13. Describe the Lapland race.

14. Describe the Tartars.

15. Describe the Hindoos.

16. Describe the negroes of Africa.

17. Describe the Europeans.

18. Describe the aboriginals of America.

SECTION II.

TEUTONIC AND GOTHIC NATIONS.

19. *State of Ancient Germany.* For three thousand years after the dispersion of men, the inhabitants of the north of Europe continued in a rude uncivilized state. They are described by Roman authors as men of enormous stature, tall and somewhat fleshy, of a fair complexion, with blue eyes and a fierce countenance, which struck terror into their enemies. They were robust, being inured to cold and hardships, with little clothing in winter, and scarcely any in summer. To harden their bodies, they were accustomed to plunge into cold water, every morning as soon as they rose from sleep. In battle, their first onset was impetuous and almost irresistible, but their strength and ardor were soon exhausted.

20. *Food.* The rude inhabitants of Europe subsisted at first on the fruits of forest trees, particularly acorns, and on the flesh of wild beasts, fish and fowls. As they advanced in population, they betook them-

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selves to the raising of cattle. These constituted their principal means of subsistence, and their wealth. As they had no money, cattle were used in payments and in trade instead of money; and hence *fee*, which originally signified cattle, came to signify money.



GERMANS.

21. *Manner of eating.* Contrary to the custom of the Eastern nations who *reclined* at the table, the rude nations of Europe took their meals *sitting*, either on mats of straw or on skins, each with a separate table, which was a *board*, either on legs or placed on the knees. Hence our use of *board* for table, and for diet, to this day. Their drink was chiefly beer or hydromel made from the honey of the forest. Their dishes were a pot or pitcher of baked earth, horns, or human skulls of prisoners taken in war.

22. *Clothing.* The rude nations of Europe wore very little clothing, even in winter, and for the most part none at all. A Scythian, who was without clothing, when the snow was falling, was asked by

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the King whether he was not cold. The man replied by asking the King, whether his *face* was cold. No, said the King. Neither am I cold, said the man, for I am all *face*. The garment chiefly worn was the sack, which was the skin of a beast, in a square form, like a mantle, covering only the shoulders and breast. It was called by the Persians, *guanac*, whence our word *gown*. In a later stage of improvement, they wore *bracks*, or breeches, and hose, a kind of trowsers.

23. *Habitations.* Savage nations, having little occupation except war and hunting, spend much of their time in eating and sleep; reposing on the earth in summer, and on skins in winter. The inhabitants of Europe had at first no fixed habitations: they roved in quest of pasture for their cattle, or for the sake of plundering their neighbors. They sometimes erected huts like the wigwams of American Indians. Some tribes lived wholly in wagons, covered with skins, in which whole families were conveyed from place to place. In winter, many of them lived in large caves in the earth. Such was the condition of the northern nations of Europe, when the Romans invaded Gaul, now France, half a century before the christian era.

24. *Assemblies and festivals.* Among the warlike nations of Europe, no person could appear in public without his arms, consisting of a sword, lance and buckler. These they wore also in their festivals and in visits to private families. When they sat at table, each man had behind him a servant who held his lance and his buckler. When they rose from table, each man resumed his arms, and wore them, whether engaged in dancing, play or other exercise. At death their arms were burnt or laid in their graves.

25. *Dressing of the hair.* Many of the inhabitants of Europe had light, red or sandy hair, and the hair of the head was valued as a great ornament. Hence both sexes took great pains to aid its growth, and to deepen its color to a fiery red. For this purpose,

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they used a kind of pomatum or soap, composed of fat, ashes and lime. In the time of Augustus, the Roman ladies introduced the fashion of tinging the hair red, and to such excess was it carried, that it came under tho censure of some of the christian fathers.

26. *The beard.* The beard was treated with great respect. The usual practice was to shave the chin and the cheeks, but they left large mustaches or whiskers. And it was customary to swear by the beard. In this manner Clovis, King of France, and Alaric, King of the Goths, ratified a treaty of peace; Alaric touching the beard of Clovis, the two princes swore eternal friendship.

27. *Ornaments.* It was customary for princes and chief men to wear necklaces and bracelets. Historians mention an army of Gauls arrayed in order of battle, whose front rank was composed of men adorned with collars and bracelets.

28. *Labor and amusements.* In the early ages, men were devoted to war and the chase, and warriors disdained the drudgery of labor. This was left to old men, women and children. But these rude nations were greatly attached to music and poetry. Hence they had an order of men called *bards*, who composed hymns in honor of brave men, and sung them at festivals. Hence their first laws, customs and religious rites were rehearsed or recorded in verse; and songs were their only histories.

29. *Recitations of songs.* The recitation of songs or poems was often accompanied with the music of an instrument, and with dancing in various forms. In these dances, the steps of the feet accorded to the measure of the verse, and hence the word *foot* came to be used for a division of a verse, consisting of a certain number of syllables. Their dances were performed by men in arms, and the practice was to keep *the* measure of the verse, by striking a sword or halberd against the buckler. This was indeed to *beat time.*

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30. *State of learning.* The inhabitants of northern Europe lived for two or three thousand years without the knowledge of letters. Even when letters were introduced into the south of Gaul, now France, by the Greeks, who first settled Marseilles, the Gauls and Germans neglected and even despised the use of them. The Druids or priests pretended to have all the learning of those rude ages, but they would not commit their knowledge to writing. This prejudice against learning letters continued down to the time of Charlemagne, in the ninth century, and even later; for that emperor could not write his own name; and for ages after that period, many of the nobility could not write their names. Instead of their proper signature to written instruments, they made a mark and set their seals.

31. *Passion for war.* The love of war is a remarkable trait in the character of our ancestors. When not engaged in a war of nations, the chiefs would sometimes invade their neighboring chiefs, either to revenge an injury or to seek booty. Hence the deadly feuds which existed at all times, between different tribes, producing quarrels and bloodshed. Such feuds between the English and Scots continued down to the time of Queen Elizabeth.

32. *Private combats.* This passion for war among ferocious men gave rise to private combats or duels. Cowardice was detested; and when one person injured or offended another, the injured party had recourse to open combat to obtain revenge or redress. When a person was challenged, he could not decline a combat, without an entire loss of character. Sometimes a man would challenge a friend, even from levity, to contend with him for superiority in a private encounter. Hence the savage origin of the present custom of dueling.

33. *Hospitality.* With all their barbarism and ferocity, our ancestors were distinguished for unbounded hospitality to strangers. Every stranger was not

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only invited, but urged to enter their cabins, and partake freely of such refreshments as they afforded. The inhabitants of a village would even contend earnestly to obtain a stranger for a guest.

34. *Feasting, and Gaming.* Our ancestors were much addicted to feasting, and often spent whole nights in drinking and revelry. Their feasts were attended with songs and dancing; and ended often in fencing or mock-fights which sometimes produced bloodshed. Their fondness for gaming was excessive; for they would stake, not only their property, but their liberty, upon the cast of a die. Such was the origin of customs which, with some refinement or abatement, continue to characterize their descendants to this day.

35. *Females.* Our ferocious ancestors were not only brave men, but utter enemies to slavery. Their love of freedom was inextinguishable; for they preferred death to slavery. Rather than be taken prisoners, they would put to death their wives and children, their sick and wounded, and then destroy their own lives. In this hatred of slavery, the men did not surpass the women. When advancing to battle, the females would sometimes mingle with the troops, and with cries and tears, urge them to fight bravely; and when the troops gave way, they would rush among the fugitives, and with reproaches, compel them to renew the contest, and win the battle or perish in the attempt.

36. *Religion.* Our pagan ancestors believed in one Supreme Being or Great Spirit, and in many subordinate deities, who presided over the elements. But they had neither statues, temples nor altars. They worshiped the sun, the moon and the earth; but they performed their worship under trees, on the tops of hills and around circles of stone.

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19. What was the state of Ancient Germany?
20. How did the original people of Germany subsist?
21. What was the ancient manner of eating?
22. What was the clothing of the ancient Germans?
23. What were the habitations of savage nations?
24. What were the festivals in ancient Europe?
25. What was the manner of dressing the hair?
26. How was the beard treated?
27. What ornaments were worn?
28. What were the employments of the German nations?
29. What kind of songs and music were used, and what was the origin of *foot* in poetry?
30. What learning had the ancient Germans?
31. What was the ruling passion of rude nations?
32. What was the origin of private combats or duels?
33. Were the rude nations of Germany hospitable?
34. What were the feasts and games of the Germans?
35. What was the character of males and females for bravery?
36. What was the religion of our pagan ancestors?

SECTION III.

SAXONS.

37. *Of the Saxons and Angles.* The ancestors of the English who first arrived in Britain, are generally known by the name of *Saxons*. But a tribe of them were called *Angles*, a name formed from *eng*, or *ing*, which, in Saxon, signifies a meadow or plain. These were inhabitants of the flat lands or plains along the banks of the Elbe and Weser, and on the borders of the Baltic sea. From these, *England*, originally called *Britain*, derives its present name; and hence the word *English*.

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38. The Romans conquered Britain, and had possession of it more than four hundred years. During this time, they protected the Britons from their enemies the Scots and Picts. When the Roman troops had left the isle, the Britons were greatly harrassed by their enemies, and sent to the continent to invite the Saxons to come to their assistance. The first body of Saxons arrived in three ships, under Hengist and Horsa, in the year 449. They were received with joy by the Britons; and uniting with them, marched against the Picts and Scots, and defeated them in a bloody battle.

39. *Settlement of the Saxons in England.* The Saxons, being pleased with the country, soon formed the design of taking possession of it for their permanent residence. They then made a proposal, to which the Britons consented, that a re-enforcement should be invited from the continent. Accordingly Hengist and Horsa sent for additional troops, which came to the number of five thousand.

40. *Alarm of the Britons.* With this army the Saxon chiefs determined on seizing a part of the territory of England. They made peace with the Picts, and began to quarrel with the Britons, about their provisions and promised rewards; and enforced their threats by fire and sword. The Britons, now awakened from their delusion, found that they had enemies instead of friends in the Saxon auxiliaries. Filled with consternation, some of the Britons fled to Gaul and settled in Britanny, in the north-western part of that country, now France; others took shelter in the woods, and others submitted to slavery.

41. *War between the Britons and Saxons.* Notwithstanding the cowardice and submission of many of the Britons, there were many who determined to resist the Saxons, and for this purpose put themselves under Vortimer, a son of Vortigern, their chief whom they despised. Many battles were fought between the Britons and Saxons; in one of which Hor-

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sa was slain, and Hengist became sole commander of the Saxons. This illustrious chief gained a great victory over the Britons, at Crayford, which gave him possession of Kent, of which he assumed the title of *King*. This was the first Saxon Kingdom in England.

42. *Conquest of the north of England.* Hengist with a view to strengthen his power, invited his son Octo from the continent. This chief collected a body of men, and sailed for England; and plundering the Orkneys on his way, he arrived on the coast of Northumberland, of which he took possession, together with all the country to the frith of Forth. Hengist gained several victories over the Britons; and the last victory at Wippidfleet struck such terror into the Britons, that they gave him little further disturbance. He died in the year 488.

43. *Kingdom of Sussex.* The Kings who succeeded Hengist maintained their dominion, not without some reverses. But Ethelbert, in a long and prosperous reign, gained many victories and enlarged his dominions. The success of these chiefs encouraged other Saxon chiefs to pass over to England. A body of Saxons arrived, and landed at Cymenshore and defeated the Britons in a great battle, near Wittering. These successes enabled their leader Alla to take the title of *King*, and found the Kingdom of Sussex.

44. *Kingdom of Wessex.* Cerdic, another Saxon chief, with a band of warriors, arrived in Britain in the year 495, and landed in the west. On the day of landing he engaged and defeated an army of Britons, and from that time he was engaged in a war with them, without intermission for twenty years, and with various success. But receiving re-enforcements from the continent, he prosecuted the war, gaining many victories, till he had established a petty Kingdom, called Wessex, that is, the Kingdom of the West-Saxons. He died in the year 534.

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45. *Kingdom of East Saxons, &c.* Encouraged by these successes, other bodies of Saxons passed over to Britain, at different times, and established the kingdom of the East-Saxons, consisting of what are now the counties of Essex, Middlesex, and part of Hertfordshire. They also founded the kingdom of the East Angles, in the territory, now Cambridge, Suffolk and Norfolk; also the kingdom of the Mercians, comprehending the middle counties from the river Severn to Yorkshire and Lancashire. Other bodies of adventurers landed in the north, and founded the kingdom of Northumberland, which included the southern part of Scotland.

The seven petty states or kingdoms before named have been called the *heptarchy*. These kingdoms, after a series of wars and revolutions, which lasted two hundred years, were united under Egbert, in the year 827.

46. *Of the Danes.* Not many years after Egbert came into possession of England, the country began to be harassed by the invasion and depredations of the Danes. It was during this period that the brave and humane King Alfred distinguished himself. He defended his country with great ability; but at last his forces were so weakened and dispirited, that he was abandoned, and he found it necessary to disguise himself as a rustic and take refuge in a cottage. On one occasion, the good woman of the house, who did not know the character of her guest, scolded him severely, for not turning some cakes baking before the fire; telling him he would be ready enough to eat them, though he would not take the pains to turn them.

47. *Success of Alfred.* King Alfred did not continue long in this disguise. He left the cottage, collected a few of the nobles, and erected a fort for his residence and protection. Hearing of the success of the earl of Devonshire over a party of Danes, he resolved to make a vigorous effort to recover his crown. For this purpose he collected his forces; but before

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hazarding a battle, he disguised himself and entered the camp of the Danes, as a harper, and spent several days in amusing them with his music and pleasantries. Having obtained a perfect knowledge of their camp, and observed their unguarded state, he left them, summoned the nobility with their men, attacked the Danes by surprise, and gained a complete victory. He then proposed to their chief, Guthrum, that he and his followers should embrace the christian religion, and join the English in opposing the ravages of the Danes. This proposition was accepted; Guthrum and his men were baptized and settled in England, AD. 880.

48. *Conquest of England by the Danes.* After Alfred's treaty with the Danes, the kingdom enjoyed a few years of peace. But the Danes renewed their invasions, and harassed the kingdom for a long series of years. At length in the year 993, Swein, king of Denmark, and Olave, king of Norway, invaded England with a great fleet, passed the winter in Northumberland, and in the spring invested London. Ethelred, the king, purchased their departure with a large sum of money. But peace was of short continuance. In the years 997 and 998, armies of Danes again invaded and made dreadful devastations, and Ethelred again bribed them to depart. But in the year 1002, great numbers of the Danes were massacred by the English, and to revenge this horrid cruelty, Swein again attacked England with a powerful army, and spread desolation on all sides. After a series of struggles, the English were finally conquered, and submitted to the Danish King Canute. AD. 1017.

49. *Events under the Danes.* Canute died in 1035, and the kingdom was divided between two sons, Harold and Hardicnute. Alfred and Edward, sons of Ethelred, English heirs to the throne, were on the continent. Emma, their mother, invited Alfred to her court, where he was seized by Harold, his eyes

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put out, and he was confined in a monastery in Ely, where he died. Harold died soon after, AD. 1039. He was called *Harefoot*, for his swiftness in running.

50. *Hardicnute. Conquest by the Normans.* Hardicnute king of Denmark, was invited to England by the nobility; but his oppressions disgusted the English. He died in the year 1041. The kingdom then returned to the lawful heir, Edward. After being an exile in Hungary for forty years, he returned to England, but died within a month. The kingdom afterwards fell to Edward, the Confessor, but he died in the year 1066, and Harold, of the Godwin family, was crowned king of England. In this year William, duke of Normandy, invaded England with an army of sixty thousand men; and after a desperate battle at Hastings, in which Harold was defeated, obtained possession of the crown, which was continued in his family.

51. *Summary of revolutions in England.* The Romans found the inhabitants of Briton in a barbarous state; they conquered them, and governed them more than four hundred years. Most of the Britons were driven into Wales by the Saxons, and the Welsh are their descendants. The dominion of England was in the Saxon conquerors for five hundred years; it then passed to the Danes, for a short period; from the Danes to the English and from the English to the Normans. William, the Norman, disposed of the baronies chiefly to Normans, and from them have descended many of the modern families of the Nobility. But the great body of the English nation are the descendants of the Saxons and Danes; chiefly of the Saxons; and from them have descended a large portion of the inhabitants of these United States. The common popular language of this country is of Saxon original, with a mixture of Danish and Welsh.

52. *Christian Religion.* It is uncertain when the Christian religion was introduced into Britain. There is however some evidence that it was intro-

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duced during the age of the apostles, when the Romans had possession of the country; although it is not ascertained by whom it was first preached and propagated. It is certain that it was introduced and had made some progress as early as the second century of the christian era; and the christians, in the reign of Diocletian, suffered persecution.

The Saxons, who conquered England, were pagans, and wherever they established themselves, they extirpated the christian religion, with its professors, and introduced their own heathen superstitions. They murdered the christian clergy without mercy, and destroyed their places of worship.

53. *Conversion of the Saxons.* After being sometime established in England, the Saxons began to make treaties with the Britons, and their hatred of the christian religion began to abate. Ethelbert, king of Kent, married Birtha, a daughter of Cherebert, king of France. Birtha was a christian, and it was stipulated in the marriage contract, that she should enjoy the free exercise of her religion. This was AD. 570. Pope Gregory about the year 596 sent Augustin, or Austin, a monk, with forty other monks, to instruct the inhabitants of England in the christian religion. This mission was attended with success; and the christian religion, not without many obstacles and temporary apostasies, was gradually propagated, and ultimately became the religion of all the inhabitants of England, in the seventh century.

54. *Learning.* Before christianity was introduced into England, the Saxons had neither learning nor books. But the missionaries, who visited England, introduced some books from Rome, and learning began to be cultivated. For a long time, learning was confined chiefly to the monasteries; and the first Saxon writers were monks. For ages most of the nobility and many of the priests could neither read nor write. But there were many monks who were masters of Greek and Latin; and in the seventh

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century flourished the venerable Bede, who was a man of great literary acquirements, and left many valuable writings. King Alfred was a learned man for the age in which he lived; and to him is ascribed a translation of Orosius from Latin into Saxon. He also translated the Psalms.

55. *Arithmetic.* As late as the twelfth century, the Saxons had no marks for numbers, except the letters of the Roman and Greek alphabets; but they had no convenient method of notation to express combinations of numbers. The Arabian figures now used were not known; and this want of figures introduced the method of expressing numbers by the fingers, and making calculations by their various positions. This appears to us a childish play, but was then a serious study.

56. *Law and Medicine.* The Saxons when they first arrived in England had no written laws, but were governed by customs; and when the laws were first reduced to writing, they were few and brief; and extended to few objects. The healing art was equally low. It was confined chiefly to women, who gathered and prepared herbs; and applied them with superstitious cermonies. After christianity was introduced, the clergy began to study medicine in Latin authors, and acquired such knowledge as to supplant the female doctors.

57. *Arts.* Under the dominion of the Romans, the arts of civilized life were introduced among the Britons. Before that period, the Britons raised corn for subsistence, but under the Romans, Britain became a granary of corn for the continent. The primitive Britons lived, in winter, in caves, and in summer, in huts made of stakes, wattled and covered with branches of trees; under the Romans, convenient houses were erected; many improvements were introduced. But the Saxons, who were barbarians, put an end to almost all the arts, and reduced Britain to a savage state. Towers, temples, walls were all demolished,

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and most of the inhabitants were extirpated. In the reign of Edgar, in the 10th century, agriculture was so little cultivated, that the price of an acre of the best land was sixteen Saxon pennies; the value of which was about four shillings sterling, or less than a dollar. In consequence of the neglect of agriculture, famines were frequent.

58. *Architecture.* The first Saxon invaders of Britain had little knowledge of architecture, especially of masonry. In the seventh century, cathedrals were built of wood and covered with reeds. But in this century, Wilfrid, Bishop of York, who had visited Rome, introduced masonry, and erected a cathedral of stone at Hexam, which was covered with lead. About the same time, the art of making glass was introduced. But stone buildings were rare, even in the eighth and nine centuries.

59. *Commerce.* The Saxons carried on little trade with foreign countries. But it is remarkable that for ages a slave-trade was carried on by the inhabitants, who exported men, women and children. It was the sight of some English slaves in market at Rome that induced Gregory to attempt the conversion of the inhabitants of England to christianity. This practice of selling slaves continued down to the Norman conquest. From Bristol, men and women were exported to Ireland; and it is related in the life of Wulstan, bishop of Worcester, at the Norman conquest, that long ranks of persons of both sexes and of the greatest beauty, tied together with ropes, were daily exposed in market.

60. *Coin.* In early ages, the Saxons had little coin; in lieu of it slaves, cattle, sheep, horses and cows supplied the defect; all being valued at certain prices. These were called *living money*, and were received in payment for lands and goods. The oldest Saxon coin that now remains, is supposed to have been made in the seventh century. The first coins were clumsily made, and not stamped. They passed

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by weight, and this introduced the word *pound* in money. But the scarcity of coin rendered it many times more valuable than it is now. By the laws of Ethelred, it appears that the price of a man or slave was *one pound* of Saxon money; the price of a horse was *thirty shillings;* that of an ox, *six shillings;* that of a sheep, *one shilling.*

61. *Persons and longevity.* The Saxons, like all the Germans, were tall, strong and robust; they were very fair in complexion; their eyes were generally blue or gray, and their aspect stern and ferocious. The females were handsome, as their descendants are at this day. The men, accustomed to war and to hardship, were generally healthy; and many of them lived to a great age. In the monastery of Croiland, at one time, were several monks above a hundred years of age. Clarenbald died aged 168 years; Swarling at the age of 142; and Turgar, aged 115.

62 *Morals.* The Saxons were not only savage in their manners, but very vicious. Bishop Lupus, in one of his sermons, represents them as murderers, thieves, robbers, liars, and parricides; and guilty of almost every species of crime. Admitting that some abatement may be made from this representation, all history testifies that, before they were converted to christianity, the Saxons and Danes were abominably wicked, and savage. The Danes were all pirates; and pirate and seaman were synonymous terms.

63. *Superstition.* After their conversion to christianity, the Saxons or English as they may be called, became much addicted to sacred things, and superstitious observances. Then commenced a fondness for monastic life. Not only the clergy, but great numbers of laymen of the highest ranks, were infected with this spirit; and among the Anglo Saxons, no less than ten kings and eleven queens, and nobles without number, abandoned the world and retired into monasteries. The clergy favored this spirit; and

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used every art of persuasion to induce them to build or enter monasteries, as the sure means of procuring the pardon of their sins. At one time they raised an alarm that the end of the world and the day of judgment were at hand, and by this means procured many donations to the church.

64. *Pilgrimages and relics.* The Saxons placed much dependence on the merit of pilgrimages to Rome, and Jerusalem. These pilgrimages were enjoined upon them as most satisfactory penances for crimes, and as acceptable services to God. Few pious persons could die in peace, till they had kissed the pope's toe. Kings, queens, nobles, prelates, monks, nuns, saints and sinners, wise men and fools, undertook journeys to Rome, which was thronged with pilgrims. To this superstition was added a great veneration for the relics of saints; and old rags, decayed bones, and rusty nails were coveted and admired; they were sent as presents by princes to each other, and preserved in churches as inestimable treasures—they were even deposited in caskets adorned with gold. Men would steal and rob to obtain the pretended little finger of a saint.

65. *Love of music.* The religion of the Saxons and Danes, after popery was established, consisted chiefly in superstitious rites, pilgrimages, penances, donations to the church and a rage for relics. Among the religious services was the performance of psalmody or singing in cathedrals and monasteries. This fondness for music was much increased by the introduction of organs, in the ninth century. Even private devotions consisted chiefly in singing; the singing of a great number of psalms being considered as an atonement for sins. All kinds of penances might be redeemed by singing a number of psalms and pater-nosters. A penitent, condemned to fast a number of days, might redeem them by singing six pater-nosters and the hundred and nineteenth psalm six times over for one day's fast. Such was the false piety of that ignorant and miserable age.

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66. *Vices.* Among the Saxons, the predominant vices and crimes were murder, theft, perjury, bribery, oppression of the poor, and intemperance in eating and drinking. Gluttony and drunkenness were the common vices of all ranks. Whole nights were often spent in feasting, revelry and drunkenness. This was the case even in their religious festivals. These vices, originating among uncivilized people, were the corrupting fountains from which have flowed similar vices in modern times. Witchcraft, sorcery and divination were common among all classes of the Saxons.

67. *Virtues.* Among the Germans, hospitality was universal, and this continued among the Saxons in England. The English kings spent a great part of their revenues in entertaining strangers, and their own nobility and clergy; and the nobles imitated their sovereigns. Monasteries were, in a degree, public houses, where strangers were lodged and entertained. In Germany, chastity and fidelity in marriage were observed with remarkable strictness. But before the Norman conquest, these virtues were almost lost.

68. *Dress.* Among the Saxons and Danes, handsome hair was esteemed a great ornament. Before marriage, females left their hair to flow in ringlets, but after marriage, it was cut shorter, tied up and covered with some kind of head-dress. The clergy, regular and secular, were obliged to shave the crown of the head, and keep their hair short. The shape of this clerical tonsure, which among the English was circular, but among the Scots semicircular, was the subject of grave and long debates, between the clergy of the two nations. The English wore shirts of linen; over which they wore a tunic, reaching to the middle of the thighs; some with sleeves, some without them. They also wore breeches, or trowsers. About their bodies, they wore belts in which were stuck their swords. The common people, and

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originally the clergy wore no stockings; but afterwards the legs were covered with cloth, fastened with bandages. They also wore mantles, reaching hardly to the knee. In the ninth century, the greatest princes wore wooden shoes; the soles being of wood, and the upper part, of leather, tied with thongs.

QUESTIONS.

37. Who were the ancestors of the English? What is the meaning of the word England?

38. Who conquered Britain? Why were the Saxons invited to England, and when did they first arrive?

39. Why did the Saxons remain in England?

40. Were the Britons alarmed at the settlement of the Saxons in England?

41. Did the Britons resist the Saxons?

42. Who were the Saxon chiefs? Who conquered England?

43. Who founded the kingdom of Sussex?

44. Who founded the kingdom of Wessex?

45. Who founded other kingdoms in England? How many kingdoms did the Saxons found in England? What were they called? Who first united the kingdoms of the Saxons?

46. What nations invaded England after the Saxons? Who was the most illustrious defender of the kingdom?

47. What stratagem did Alfred use to defeat the Danes?

48. When and how was England conquered by the Danes?

49. Give an account of Harold and Hardicanute?

50. When did the Normans conquer England, and who was the conquering chief?

51. State what were the revolutions in England? Who were the ancestors of the English?

52. When was the christian religion introduced into England? How did the Saxons treat christianity?

53. How were the Saxons converted to christianity?

54. What was the state of learning among the Saxons? When and how was learning introduced into England?

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55. What did the Saxons use instead of figures in numbering?
56. What was the state of law and medicine?
57. What was the state of the arts?
58. What was the state of architecture?
59. What was the trade of the Saxons?
60. What was used for coin among the Saxons?
61. Describe the persons of the Saxons.
62. What was the state of morals among the Saxons?
63, 64. Describe the superstition of the Saxons.
65. What was the religion and love of music among the Saxons?
66. What were the vices of the Saxons?
67. What were the virtues of the Saxons?
68. What was the dress of the Saxons?

SECTION III.

AFTER THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

69. *Agriculture.* The conquest of England by William, of Normandy, was followed by great changes in the state of England. Many of the Norman nobility settled in England; many of the ecclesiastical benefices were bestowed on Norman clergy; and many laymen of other descriptions followed William and took up their abode in England. By these Normans, the agriculture of England was improved. The instruments of husbandry, such as carts, harrows, sythes, sickles and flails, were nearly of the form now used; but the plow had but one handle, which the plowman held with one hand, having in the other an instrument for cleansing the plow and breaking clods. The Norman plow had two wheels, and was drawn by one or two oxen.

70. *Architecture.* Under the Norman princes, great improvements were made in the art of building,

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particularly in the erection of many churches and monasteries. The ancient edifices were demolished, and others of greater magnificence were erected; and during this period, was introduced the style of building called *Gothic*. But the clergy and monks possessed the most wealth and influence, and their zeal was directed to the building of churches, on which they bestowed immense labor and expense. But the houses of common citizens and burgesses were yet very mean. Even in London, the houses of mechanics and common burgesses were bilt of wood, and covered with reeds or straw, down to the close of the twelfth century.

71. *Castles.* During the period under consideration, murders, robberies and violence were so common, that the barons in England, as in France, erected castles for their residence. Their situation was generally on an eminence and near a river. The site was of considerable extent, and surrounded by a broad, deep ditch, called the *foss*, and sometimes filled with water. Before the great gate was an outwork, called a barbacan or ante-mural, which was a strong high wall with turrets upon it, for defense of the gate and drawbridge over the ditch. On the inside of the ditch was the wall of the castle, eight or ten feet thick and twenty or thirty feet high, with a parapet, and on the top *crennels*, a sort of embrasures. From the top of this wall and from the roofs of bildings, the defenders discharged arrows, darts and stones upon the assailants. The gate of the castle in this wall was fortified with a tower on each side; it had thick folding doors of oak, with an iron portcullis. Within this outward wall was an open space, and commonly a chapel. Within this was another wall, and within that the chief tower, four or five stories high, with thick walls. This was the residence of the prince, prelate or baron to whom the castle belonged. Under ground was a vault or dungeon for the confinement of prisoners.

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72. *Armor.* The art of making defensive armor was cultivated in the early stages of civilization. It was known to the Saxons before the conquest, and was improved under the Norman race of kings. A suit of armor consisted of many pieces of metal, nicely jointed to allow free motion to the limbs; finely polished and beautifully gilt. Samples of this armor are now to be seen in the tower of London.

73. *Clothing.* The dressing and spinning of wool and flax was practiced before the conquest; but these arts were greatly improved by Flemings who settled in England after the conquest. There were *gilds* or fraternities of weavers which had royal charters, with various privileges. Tapestry hangings, on which were historical representations, were made in England; and the Saxon females were distinguished for making elegant embroidery, adorned with figures of men, beasts, birds and flowers.

74. *Greek fire.* Among the weapons of defense, in war, was a composition called *Greek fire*, as it was imported from the eastern empire. This was kept in vials or pots, and discharged from machines upon an attacking enemy. It burnt with a bright flame, and so intense a heat, as to consume any combustible substance. It penetrated the warrior's armor, and peeled his flesh from his bones. The composition of it was kept a profound secret; but it is now known to have been a compound of naptha, bitumen and sulphur. It was an object of great terror to besiegers of cities and castles.

75. *Chivalry.* It was under the Norman princes that chivalry was introduced into England. Noble youths intended for the profession of arms, were placed, as pages or valets, in the families of great barons, where they were instructed in the rules of courtesy and politeness, and in martial exercises. The courts of princes and barons became schools of chivalry, in which young men were instructed in dancing, riding, hawking, hunting, tilting, and other

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accomplishments to qualify themselves for the honors of knighthood. From pages they were advanced to the rank of esquires.

76. *Exercises: tilts and tournaments.* Once a week in Lent, crowds of sprightly youth, mounted on horseback, rode into the fields in bands, armed with lances and shields, and exhibited representations of battles. Many of the young nobility, not yet knighted, issued from the houses of princes, bishops, earls, and barons, to make trial of their skill and strength in arms. The hope of victory rouses their spirits; their fiery steeds neigh, prance, and champ their foaming bits. The signal given, the sports begin; the youths, divided into bands, encounter each other. Some fly, others pursue without overtaking them; while in another quarter, one band overtakes and overthrows another.

77. *Knighthood.* After spending seven or eight years in these schools in the station of esquires, these youths received the honors of knighthood, from the prince or baron. To prepare for this ceremony, they were obliged to submit to severe fastings, to spend nights in prayer, in a church—to receive the sacrament, to bathe and put on white robes, confess their sins, and hear sermons, in which christian morals were explained. Thus prepared, the candidate went to a church, and advanced to the altar with his sword slung in a scarf about his neck. This sword he presented to the priest, who blessed and returned it. When the candidate approached the personage who was to perform the ceremony, he fell on his knees and delivered him his sword.

78. *Dubbing of Knights.* The candidate, having taken an oath, was adorned with the armor and ensigns of knighthood, by the knights and ladies attending the ceremony. First they put on his spurs, beginning with his left foot; next his coat of mail; then his cuirass, then the armor for his legs, hands, and arms; and lastly, they girt on his sword. Then

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the king or baron descended from his throne or seat, and gave him the accolade, which was three gentle strokes with the flat of his sword on the shoulder, or with the palm of his hand on the cheek; pronouncing in the name of St. George, "*I make thee a knight; be brave, hardy and loyal.*" The young knight then rose, put on his shield and helmet, mounted his horse without the stirrup, and displayed his dexterity in the management of his horse, amidst the acclamations of a multitude of spectators.

79. *Coats of arms, &c.* The Saxon warriors adopted the practice of adorning their shields and banners with the figures of animals, or other devices, every one according to his own fancy. But after the conquest, and in the times of the first crusades, more attention was given to these devices; families adopted such as suited their fancy; they were appropriated to families, and became hereditary. This was the origin of heraldry, which, in England, is quite a science; every family of distinction having its escutcheon.

80. *Magnificence.* Increase of wealth was attended with an increase of magnificence. Instead of mean houses, in which the English used to spend their nights in feasting and revelry, the Norman barons dwelt in stately palaces, kept elegant tables and a splendid equipage. As there were no good inns in those times, travelers were obliged to carry their own bedding and provisions, as they still are in Spain. A nobleman or a prelate, when he traveled, was attended with a train of servants and attendants; knights, esquires, pages, clerks, cooks, confectioners, gamesters, dancers, barbers, wagons loaded with furniture, provisions, and plate. To each wagon was chained a huge mastif, and on each pack-horse sat an ape or a monkey. Such was the retinue of Thomas Becket, chancellor of England.

81. *Surnames.* In early ages, men had no surnames. Among the Saxons, it was customary to dis-

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tinguish men by some descriptive epithet, as John, the *black*; Thomas, the *white*, Richard, the *strong*. Afterwards, it was the practice to designate particular persons by their occupations; as John, the *smith*, William, the *saddler*, David, the *tailor*, &c. and in time the name of the occupation became the surname of the family. After the conquest, the Norman barons introduced the practice of taking their surnames from their castles or estates: a practice which was formerly common in France, and from which many names of families have been derived.

82. *Religion.* The state of religion under the first Norman kings was miserably low, consisting chiefly in bilding churches and monasteries, and enriching them with donations; or in a round of insignificant ceremonies. Then flourished school-divinity, which consisted in discussing minutely nice abstruse questions in logic and morals. Two methods of preaching were in use; one was to expound the scripture sentence after sentence in regular order. This was called *postillating*, and the preachers, *postillators*. The other method was for the preacher to *declare*, at first, what subject he intended to preach on, without naming a passage of scripture as a text. This was called *declaring*. About the beginning of the thirteenth century, the method of naming a text was introduced, and the preacher divided the subject into a great number of particulars. This was severely censured at first, particularly by Roger Bacon; but it finally became universal.

The scriptures were divided into chapters and verses by Cardinal Langton, in the beginning of the thirteenth century.

83. *Gun-powder and guns.* The discovery of gunpowder is ascribed to Roger Bacon, in the thirteenth century; but that philosopher concealed the discovery, by transposing the letters of the words which were intended to express *charcoal* or the *dust of charcoal*, in his mention of the substance. It was there-

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fore a long time before the manufacture of this article became common.

The precise time when guns or cannon were first used is not ascertained. It is said that Edward III. had cannon in his campaign against the Scots, AD. 1327. They were called *crakys*. It is certain, cannon were used in Scotland in 1339; and Edward III. used them in France, in the famous battle of Cressy and at the siege of Calais, AD. 1346. The first cannon were clumsy, and wider at the mouth than at the other end. Small guns were called *hand-cannon*, carried by two men, and fired from a rest fixed in the ground.

84. *Vices and miseries.* In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, astrology was in vogue among all classes of people. No prince would engage in an enterprise, till he had consulted the position of the stars. The belief in miracles was common. Pope Innocent VI. believed Petrarch to be a magician, because he could read Virgil. Judges of courts were almost universally corrupt; justice was every where perverted by bribes; some judges were found guilty, and fined in enormous sums; one judge was condemned to be hanged, for exciting his followers to commit a murder. Robbery was so common that no person could travel in safety. Robbers in Hampshire were so numerous, that juries would not find any of them guilty. They formed companies under powerful barons who shared with them the booty. Princes, cardinals and bishops were robbed, as they were traveling, and sometimes imprisoned, till they paid large sums for their ransom. The common people were every where oppressed, ignorant and wretched.

85. *Dress.* Never were wantonness, pride, vanity, folly and false taste, carried to a greater excess, than in the richness, extravagance and variety of the dresses of the nobles in this period. The love of finery, the passion of weak and silly people, infected all the higher orders, kings, barons and knights,

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the marriage of Alexander III. of Scotland to Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry III. king of England, the king of England was attended by a thousand knights, dressed in silk robes; and these were, the next day, exchanged for other dresses equally expensive and splendid. Furred garments, fine linens, jewels, gold and silver plate, rich furniture and utensils, the spoils of Caen and Calais, were brought into England, and every woman of rank had her share. King Richard II. had a coat which cost him thirty thousand marks; and Sir John Arundel had no fewer than fifty suits of cloth of gold. This love of finery infected the common people; and a sumptuary law was passed, AD. 1363, to restrain this extravagance; but with little effect.

86. *Fashions.* Fashion had, in this period, a no less despotic influence, than it has in modern times. The men wore pointed shoes, in which they could not walk, without fastening the points to their knees with chains. The upper part of the shoe was cut in the shape of a church window. These shoes, called *crackows*, continued in fashion three hundred years. The men of fashion wore hose of one color on one leg, and of another color on the other; a coat, half white and half black or blue; a long beard; a silk hood buttoned under the chin, embroidered with odd figures. Fashionable ladies wore party-colored tunics, half of one color and half of another; and small caps wrapped about the head with cords; girdles ornamented with gold and silver, and short swords, called daggers, fastened a little below the navel. Sometimes their head-dresses rose like pyramids nearly three feet high, with streamers of fine silk flowing and reaching to the ground.

87. *Manners.* The manners of the English, by their intercourse with foreign countries, gradually improved. But even in the reign of Henry VII. they were rude. When Catharine of Arragon arrived in England, Henry was informed the princess had

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arrived and had retired to rest; yet Henry was so uncourteous that he obliged her to rise and dress herself; and he that night affianced her to his son Arthur.

In the reign of Henry VIII. so rigorous and tyrannical was the discipline of families: so formal, reserved and haughty were parents, that sons, arrived to manhood, were obliged to stand uncovered and silent, in presence of their parents; and daughters of adult years, were compelled to stand by the cupboard, not being permitted to sit or repose, otherwise than by kneeling on a cushion, till their mothers had left the room.

88. *Furniture of houses.* The apartments at Hampton-Court, were on one occasion, furnished each with a candlestick, a basin, a goblet and ewer of silver; yet the king's chamber, except the bed and cupboard, contained no furniture except a joint-stool, a pair of andirons and a small mirror. The walls of the wealthy were adorned with hanging or arras, and furnished with a cupboard, long tables, or rather loose boards placed on trestles; also with forms, chairs, and a few joint-stools. The rich had comfortable beds; but the common people slept on mats or straw pallets, under a rug, with a log for a pillow. Glass windows were seen only in churches or the mansions of the rich; and the floor was clay covered with sand and rushes. Such was the condition of the English in the reign of Henry VIII. or beginning of the sixteenth century.

89. *State of the church.* From the time when christianity was introduced into England, the pope of Rome had been gradually gaining power and ascendancy in all parts of Europe. The rights and privileges of the English clergy, under the first Norman princes, had been surrendered to the Roman pontif, and by means of various taxes, immense sums of money were extorted from them, to enrich the coffers of his holiness, who advanced foreigners to the richest

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bishoprics in England, and even sold to Italians livings before they became void. This exercise of his power was prohibited by statutes of Parliament in the reigns of Edward III. and Richard II.

90. *Beginning of the Reformation.* The first effort to reform the errors of popery in England was made by John Wickliff, in the reign of Edward III. and Richard II. He was born about the year 1324, and advanced to a professorship in Oxford, where he was educated. He rejected many of the popish doctrines; many of the rites and traditions of the church; and boldly asserted that in the apostolic age the bishop and priest were of the same order. He opposed the doctrine of transubstantiation and the infallibility of the pope; he declared the church of Rome not to be the head of other churches; that Peter had not the power of the keys, any more than the rest of the apostles; and that the gospel being a perfect rule of life and manners, ought to be read by the people. His opinions were, in many particulars, the same as those now entertained by protestants.

91. *Wickliff's opinions condemned.* Wickliff's doctrines reached Rome and were condemned by pope Gregory XI. His successor, Urban, wrote to king Richard and to the archbishop of Canterbury to suppress his doctrine. Accordingly his doctrines were condemned in a convocation of bishops; he was deprived of his professorship; his books and writings were burnt, and he himself was sentenced to imprisonment. But he retired and escaped. He declared himself willing to defend his opinions in Rome, but for his sickness and infirmities. He was the first to translate the New Testament into English. But although his doctrines were condemned and his books, nearly two hundred volumes, were burnt; he left many disciples, who were called *Lollards.*

92. *Laws to oppose Reformation.* In the year 1215, it was decreed by the Council of Lateran, that all heretics should be delivered over to the civil ma-

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gistrate to be burned. In the reign of Henry IV. it was enacted by Parliament that persons convicted of heresy and refusing to abjure their errors should be delivered over to the secular power, and mayors, sheriffs and bailifs were to receive them and burn them before the people. Even the reading of the scriptures in English subjected a person to death and forfeitures. Under these laws, hundreds of the Lollards suffered imprisonment and death. This attempt at reformation by Wickliff was nearly a hundred and fifty years before the days of Luther.

93. *Henry VIII.* Thus stood the laws respecting religion, when the crown devolved on Henry VIII. in the year 1509. Henry was bred a scholar; was well acquainted with Latin, and with school divinity; and was very vain of his attainments. But he was devoted to papacy; and after Luther had begun to oppose the Pope, Henry wrote a treatise in defense of the Romish religion. For this he received, from the Pope, the title of *Defender of the Faith*—a title still borne by the kings of England.

94. *Cause of Henry's opposition to popery.* Henry, after living with his queen twenty years, became weary of her, and determined to obtain a divorce. For this purpose, he applied to the pope. But the pope, for some reasons of policy, held him in suspense. Henry then applied to the universities of Europe, for their opinion, whether it was agreeable to the law of God for a man to marry his brother's wife, and whether the Pope could dispense with the law of God. The answers were in the negative. The Parliament agreed with the universities. Henry then obtained an act of Parliament, declaring *the king to be the supreme head of the church.* This act, which took from the pope his power of governing the English church, was the *beginning of the reformation*; from which we see that Henry's *personal enmity* to the Roman pontif was the moving cause, and not any opposition to the Catholic religion. The

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king finally obtained a divorce from the spiritual court, and afterwards married Ann Boleyn.

95. *Translation of the scriptures.* Wickliff had rendered the New Testament into English in the fourteenth century; but before the invention of printing; and the work was suppressed by the adherents of popery. The next translation was by one Tyndal. This was condemned by the Catholic clergy, but such was the eagerness of the people to read the scriptures in the English language, that it spread with wonderful rapidity. The king attempted to call in all copies of the translation, in 1530, and promised a more correct version. But the book was reprinted on the continent, and copies were imported by the merchants, and privately sold. It was then moved in a convocation of the clergy, that the whole Bible should be translated into English. But the old clergy opposed it; alledging that this would lay the foundation of innumerable heresies, as the people were not proper judges of the sense of the scriptures. In reply, it was said that the original scriptures were written in the vulgar language, and that Christ commanded his hearers to search the scriptures. In short, Archbishop Cranmer revised and corrected the version of Tyndal, Coverdale and Rogers, and this was allowed by authority to be read by the people. In 1568, several bishops and other learned men revised Cranmer's copy, and this version, called the bishops' Bible, was read in churches, till the present version was made in the reign of James I.

96. *Reformation imperfect.* The reformation from popery was left, in Henry's reign, far from being complete; most of the doctrines and rites of the Romish church being retained. In the reign of his son Edward VI. a further progress was made, and a liturgy prepared, in which many of the popish doctrines and rights were not admitted. But in the reign of his successor, Queen Mary, who was a papist, almost all the laws which favored a reform were re-

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pealed and popery was re-established. Mary's reign was short, and soon after Queen Elizabeth ascended the throne, the laws in favor of the reformation were revived; the liturgy of Edward with alterations was adopted; and the church of England was established nearly on its present basis.

QUESTIONS.

69. What was the state of agriculture after the Norman conquest?

70. When was architecture improved?

71. Describe the castles of the barons. Why were they erected?

72. What was the armor of the Saxons?

73. What was the clothing?

74. Describe the Greek fire.

75. When was chivalry introduced into England?

76. Describe tilts and tournaments.

77. Give an account of knighthood.

78. How were men made knights?

79. What was the origin of coats of arms and heraldry?

80. Describe the magnificence of the barons and prelates.

81. Give an account of the origin of surnames.

82. What was the state of religion under the first Norman princes? What methods of preaching were in use? When and by whom were the scriptures divided into verses?

83. When and by whom was gunpowder discovered, and when were cannon first used?

84. Describe the vices and miseries of the English in the 13th and 14th centuries.

85. What was the dress?

86. What were the fashions?

87. What were the manners of the English in the reign of Henry VII. and Henry VIII.?

88. Describe the furniture of houses.

89. What was the state of the church under the Norman princes?

90. When and by whom was the reformation begun?

91, 92. How was the reformation opposed?

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93. Character of Henry VIII.
94. Why did Henry VIII. oppose popery, and what was the beginning of the reformation?
95. When and by whom were the scriptures first translated into English?
96. How and when was the liturgy of the church of England introduced?

SECTION IV.

AMERICA.

97. *Of the peopling of America.* It is evident that many centuries after the old continent was well inhabited, and highly civilized, the American continent remained the residence of wild beasts only. By what means men found their way to this continent, is not quite certain; but there is good reason to believe, they passed from the northern parts of Tartary, to the north-western coast of America, not long after, and perhaps before the christian era. The Mexican traditions and historical paintings all deduce the origin of the Mexican nations from the north-west.

98. *Progress of settlements by the natives.* It is very probable from the Mexican history, that the natives of America migrated in hordes, clans or tribes; moving, like the Tartars, with their families and substance. These tribes probably ranged first along the western shore of North America, following each other in succession, like waves following waves, as they were invited to the south, by the mildness of the climate, or were driven by other tribes in the rear; until they seated themselves in the warm and fertile vales of Mexico. That country as well as Peru had become very populous when first visited by Europeans.

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99. *Settlements on the Atlantic.* It is probable that when the warmer regions of America had become populous, the Indians began to spread themselves over the eastern parts of the continent, following the course of rivers, and the shore of the Atlantic. In this progress, they would first find the rivers that fall into the Mississippi, and pursuing them, would find and plant the rich intervals on these rivers. Then continuing their course, they would be led along the Alabama, the Tennessee, the Ohio and the Wabash, to their sources, and crossing the mountains and the lakes, would pursue the streams that fall into the Atlantic. And hence perhaps the tradition among the Indians of the United States, that their ancestors came from the south-west, and that the great Spirit resides in that quarter.

100. *Time when America was first peopled.* The Toltecas, the most ancient tribe in Mexico, date their establishment in that country, as far back as the seventh century of our era. This nation was nearly destroyed by a famine and mortal pestilence about the year one thousand and thirty-one. Other tribes succeeded this, and in the twelfth century, the Mexican tribe, which lived on the north of the Gulf of California, migrated, and after various removals, fixed their abode in the country, which bears their name, about the year thirteen hundred and twenty-five. This was about two hundred years before the Spaniards discovered and conquered the country.

101. *Resemblance among the Indian tribes.* All the tribes of the primitive inhabitants of America, appear to resemble each other, in all essential parts of their character, except the Esquimaux, in Labrador. The people of Mexico and Peru, when first discovered, had made considerable advances towards an enlightened state, beyond the other nations. This was owing to a crowded population, which compelled them to cultivate the earth and attend to the arts for

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subsistence. But in the northern parts of this continent, the Indians lived in a wild, savage state.



MEXICAN MAN AND WOMAN.

102. *Climate of Mexico.* Mexico, the capital city of the country, is in the nineteenth degree of north latitude, and of course in a warm climate. The valleys and plains of the country are hot, but the mountains are so high as to have a temperate air, and some of them, at times, are clothed with snow.

103. *City of Mexico.* Mexico was founded in the year 1325, on a small isle in the midst of the Lake Tezeuco. It was surrounded by water, but communicated with the land, by three causeys, raised with earth and stone, wide enough for ten horsemen to ride abreast; besides two, which were narrower and supported aqueducts to convey water to the city. When taken by the Spaniards, it was ten miles in circumference, and contained sixty thousand houses.

104. *Buildings of the Mexicans.* The Mexicans did not know the use of iron, but they had axes of

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copper, and were acquainted with the use of lime. Their public bildings were of great size, with walls of stone laid in lime, and some of them polished to an uncommon degree. They bilt bridges also with stone arches.

105. *Religion of the Mexicans.* The Mexicans had an imperfect idea of a Supreme Being, and believing him to be invisible, they never represented him by sensible objects. They believed also, like the Greeks and Romans, in a number of inferior deities, who presided over the air, fire, earth, water, mountains and the like; and they believed also in an evil spirit, or god of darkness. They deified the sun and moon, and believed in the doctrine of transmigration; that is, that the souls of men after death pass into other animals, as cattle, birds, fishes and the like.

106. *Worship of the Mexicans.* Although the Mexicans did not represent the Supreme God by any sensible objects, yet they had images of their inferior deities, made of stone, wood, and some of them of gold or other metals. These were worshiped with prayers, fasting, and other austerities, kneeling and prostrations, with many rites and ceremonies. To these idols also they sacrificed human victims, selected from their slaves or prisoners of war, in such numbers and with such barbarity that the accounts of them cannot be read without horror and astonishment. Such is the state of nations, who do not enjoy the advantages of civilization and the Christian religion.

107. *Traditions respecting the Deluge, &c.* The Mexicans had distinct traditions among them of the creation of the world, the universal deluge, the confusion of languages, and the dispersion of mankind; and these events they had represented in their paintings. They believed that all mankind had been overwhelmed with an inundation, except one man and one woman, who were saved in a small boat and land-

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ed on a mountain. But these traditions were mingled with many fables.

108. *Priests.* The idolatry of the Mexican nations was remarkable for the number of priests, consecrated to the respective gods. It was their business to perform the sacrifices, compose hymns, take care of the temples and ornaments of the altars, keep the calendar, preserve the paintings, direct the festivals, instruct the youth, and offer incense. The priests never shaved their faces, but painted their bodies, bathed every evening, fasted often, and observed great temperance and austerities. The Mexicans all practiced severe cruelties on their own bodies, such as piercing and mangling the flesh, absurdly imagining that such mortifications would please their deities.



MEXICAN PRIEST AND WARRIOR.

109. *Mexican Year.* The year among the Mexicans consisted of three hundred and sixty-five days. These days were distributed into eighteen months of

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twenty days each, and the five additional days were called, *useless*, and employed in receiving and returning visits. The year began on the 26th day of February; but every fourth year it began one day earlier. The century or long period consisted of fifty-two years, which was divided into four periods of thirteen years each; and the year, every fourth year, beginning one day earlier, thirteen of these anticipated days carried back the beginning of the year, at the close of the century, to the fourteenth of February. Then the new century again began on the 26th.

110. *Ceremonies at the birth of a child.* When a child was born, it was immediately bathed in water, and the gods were implored to be propitious to the infant. On this occasion the parents received the congratulations of their friends. The diviners were also consulted as to the future good or ill fortune of the child; for the Mexicans, like other ignorant people, were believers in lucky and unlucky days and signs. On the fifth day, after the birth, the child was bathed a second time, when the friends were invited, and if the parents were rich, great entertainments were made, and suits of apparel given to the guests. On this occasion, if the child was a male, a bow and arrows, or some instrument or habit, which the child would use, when grown up, were prepared; and if a female, a spindle, or some dress suitable for one of her condition.

111. *Marriage Ceremonies.* Marriage agreements among the Mexicans, were made by the parents, after consulting the oracles or diviners, who pronounced on the omens of good or ill. The damsel was solicited by women chosen for that purpose, who went to the house at midnight. In all cases, the parents of the young woman refused to grant the *first* request. At the second request, the parents deliberated with the relations, and afterwards sent an answer. At the day appointed for the nuptials, the p-

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rents conducted the bride to the house of her father in law, where a priest tied a corner of her gown to the mantle of the bridegoom—she then walked round a fire, and both bride and bridegoom offered copal to the gods by way of incense, and exchanged presents with each other. At supper, they gave mouthfuls to each other alternately, and the ceremony was concluded by the attendants with dancing.

112. *Funeral Rites.* In burying the dead, the Mexicans practiced many superstitious ceremonies, among which was the dressing of the body with pieces of paper and then with a habit suitable to the rank of the deceased, and his occupation in life. They gave to the dead also a jug of water to serve him on the journey, and killed a small animal like a dog, and tying a string about its neck, buried it with the deceased, as a companion on his way; or if the dead body was burned, the animal was burnt also, and his ashes collected and buried in an earthern pot, and eighty days after, they made over it oblations of bread and wine. When a prince died, his body was clothed with cotton garments richly ornamented with gold, silver and gems; and his slave and attendants were killed, to serve him in their respective offices in the other world.

113. *Education of Youth.* The Mexicans, notwithstanding their many superstitious and barbarous customs, exhibited, in their manner of educating youth, an example worthy of imitation. All mothers, if able, nursed their own children; and if a stranger was taken as a nurse, none was accepted unless of sound health. Children were accustomed to endure hardships, heat and cold. They were early taught to attend the temples and worship the gods, imploring their aid and protection; to abhor vice and to be modest and respectful to aged people. The boys were instructed in the use of arms or utensils of some art; the girls were taught to spin and weave; and all were directed to bathe often, and observe great cleanliness.

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114. *Punishment of the Vices of Youth.* Great respect was paid to truth among the Mexicans; and whenever a child was detected in a lie, they pricked his lip with the thorn of the aloe. They tied the feet of girls that were too fond of walking abroad. A disobedient or quarrelsome boy was beat with nettles. Another punishment was to make the offender receive into his nostrils the smoke of the chilli, a kind of pepper.

115. *Government of the Mexican Empire.* The Mexicans were governed by a monarch, but he was chosen by four Electors appointed for that purpose, from among the noble families, and distinguished by their prudence and probity. As soon as they had made a choice, their electoral power expired, and a new appointment was made forthwith, either of the same or of other persons. If a vacancy happened among the electors, before the death of the king, his place was immediately supplied by a new appointment. The laws of the empire obliged the electors to choose a king from among the brothers, nephews or cousins of the deceased king.

116. *Classes of People.* The Mexicans were divided into nobles, priests and common people. Of the nobility there were different ranks, each of which had its own proper privileges and badge. The nobles wore ornaments of gold and gems on their garments, and to them belonged exclusively the right of enjoying the high offices at court. To entitle a man to the first rank of nobility, he must possess great wealth, and have given unquestionable proof of his bravery in battle. He was also compelled to undergo without complaint, fasting, abstinence, and reproaches. A principal badge of this dignity was, an ornament of gold suspended from the cartilage of the nose.

117. *Landed Property.* Lands in Mexico were divided between the crown, the nobles, the cities or communities, and the temples. The crown lands

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were held by certain noblemen, who made an acknowledgment for them to the king, by presenting him with birds, or nosegays or flowers, when they paid him a visit; and they were also obliged to repair the royal palace, if necessary.; to aid and direct in cultivating his garden, and to attend him, when he appeared in public. These lands descended to the eldest son of the noble, but could not be alienated.

118. *Lands of the Nobles and Communities.* The lands which the nobles owned were transmitted from father to son; some of these could be sold, but not to plebeians or common people.

The property of the cities or the villages was divided among them according to their number, and each district held its share, independent of the others. These lands could not be alienated.

119. *Public Revenues.* All the conquered provinces of Mexico paid tribute in fruits, animals, and the metals of the country, according to a certain rate; merchants paid their portion in goods, and artisans in the productions of their labors. In the capital of each province, was a magazine for the corn, and other articles paid as tribute. One province was taxed with the payment of four thousand handfuls of beautiful fethers; another, paid twenty bags of cochineal; a third, a certain quantity of cocoa, cotton garments, or tiger skins; a fourth, a certain number of plates of gold, necklaces, ear-rings or emeralds; and a fifth, a number of cups of honey, or basins of yellow ocher, axes, mats, and the like.

120. *Courts of Justice.* In most of the large cities and provinces, justice was administered among the Mexicans, by a supreme magistrate, from whose sentence, whether in civil or criminal cases, there was no appeal. This officer appointed the subordinate judges, and the receivers of revenue, within his district, and any one who usurped his authority or made use of his ensigns, were punished with death. In one kingdom, the judges were rendered independent,

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by estates assigned to their office, and passing to their successors, not to their heirs. The Mexicans had no lawyers or professional advocates; every suitor and criminal producing his witnesses and making his own allegations.

121. *Laws, Punishments and Crimes.* The Mexicans were governed by fixed laws, which were rigorously enforced. Treason was punished by tearing the traitor in pieces; those who were privy to it, and did not disclose it, were deprived of their liberty. To maltreat an embassador, minister or public messenger, was death. The same punishment was inflicted on those who excited sedition; on those who removed or changed boundaries of lands, established by authority; on judges who gave sentence contrary to law, or took bribes; on those who disobeyed military orders; on murderers, and those guilty of incest, adultery and unnatural crimes. Guardians who embezzled the estate of their wards, were hanged without mercy; and so were sons who squandered their patrimony in vices.

122. *Other Crimes.* It was a capital crime for one sex to dress in the garments of the other, and to rob in the market. The thief of an article of little value, was punished only by being compelled to restore it; if a person stole things of value, he was made the slave of the person injured. If the thief could not make compensation, or the thing stolen did not exist, he was stoned to death. To steal maiz was a crime, but a poor traveler was permitted to take of maiz or fruits near the highway, as much as would satisfy present hunger. Drunkenness in youth was a capital offense; in older persons, was punished with severity; a nobleman being stripped of his rank and office, and a plebeian being shaved and having his house demolished. One who told a lie to the injury of another, lost a part of his lip or his ears.

123. *War.* No profession among the Mexicans was held more honorable than that of arms. No

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person could be crowned king, until he had given full proof of his courage, and had taken with his own hands, the victims to be sacrificed at his coronation. Those who died in the service of their country, were supposed to be the happiest in another life. Great pains were taken to inure children to labor, hardships and danger; and to inspire them with high notions of military honor. To reward the services of warriors, the Mexicans devised three military orders; that of Princes, of Eagles and of Tigers, which were distinguished by particular badges, or armor.

124. *Military Dress.* When the Mexicans went to battle, they wore only a coarse white habit; and no person was entitled to change this plain dress for one more costly, without having given proofs of bravery. The king, besides his armor, wore on his legs a kind of half boots, made of thin plates of gold; on his arms plates of the same, and bracelets of gems; at his under lip hung an emerald set in gold; at his ears, he wore ear-rings of the same stone; about his neck a necklace or chain of gold; and a plume of beautiful fethers on his head; together with a splendid badge consisting of a wreath of fethers, reaching from his head down his back. The common soldiers wore only a girdle round the waist, but painted their bodies.

125. *The defensive arms of the Mexicans.* The defensive armor of the Mexicans consisted in shields made in different forms and of various materials. Some were wholly round; others on one side only. Some were made of solid elastic canes, interwove with cotton threads, and covered with fethers. The shields of the nobles, were made of thin plates of gold, or tortoise shells, adorned with gold, silver or copper. Some were made so as to be folded and carried under the arms, like an umbrella. The officers had breastplates of cotton very thick and proof against arrows. They also covered the chest, the thighs and half of the arms, and wore a case over

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the head, in shape of the head of a tiger or serpent, which gave them a frightful appearance.

126. *Offensive Arms.* The weapons of war among the Mexicans were arrows, slings, clubs, spears, pikes, swords and darts. Their bows were made of a strong elastic wood, and the string of the sinews of animals or the hair of the stag. Their arrows were pointed with a sharp bone, or piece of flint. They never used poisoned arrows. Their sword was a stout stick, three feet and a half long, and four inches broad, armed with a sort of sharp knife of stone, firmly fastened to it with gum lac. With this a horse might be beheaded at a single stroke. Their pikes, some of which were eighteen feet long, were pointed with flint or copper. The dart was a small lance of wood hardened in the fire or shod with copper. To this was tied a string, for pulling it back after it was thrown.

127. *Manner of making War.* It was a laudable custom with the Mexicans, before a declaration of war, to send embassadors to the enemy, for the purpose of dissuading from hostilities. By representing and enforcing, in powerful language, the miseries of war, they sometimes effected a reconciliation and preserved peace. In battle, it was less their desire to kill their enemies, than to take them prisoners, for the purpose of sacrifice. Each nation had its ensign; that of Mexico was an eagle darting upon a tiger; that of Tlascala, an eagle with its wings spread. Their martial music consisted of drums, horns and sea shells. For fortifications, they used palisades, ditches, walls and ramparts of earth or stone.

128. *Agriculture and Gardening.* The principal article cultivated for food by the Mexicans, was maiz, or indian corn; an invaluable grain first found in America. They had neither plows, oxen nor horses to prepare the ground for planting; but a hoe, made of copper. They planted maiz in the manner now practiced in our country. They made great use of

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rivulets for watering their lands, conducting the water by canals from the hills. They cultivated gardens to great perfection, and from them supplied Mexico with great abundance of plants, fruits and flowers. By means of twisted willows and roots, they made a substratum which, being covered with earth, constituted floating gardens on the lakes, which were a great curiosity.

129. *Mexican Money.* The Mexicans used the following articles as money; a species of cocoa, a piece of which represented a certain *number;* or if a large sum was used, it passed in sacks, each being of a certain value; small pieces of cotton; gold dust in goose quills; pieces of copper in the form of a T; and thin pieces of tin; all which had their particular value and use.

130. *Mexican Language.* The Mexicans had no knowledge of letters; and their language contained the sounds of twenty of our letters only; but it was copious, and very expressive. Almost all words had the accent on the last syllable except one. In the place of letters and words, the Mexicans used, for recording events, paintings, which by means of perfect system and regularity of figures and positions, represented facts with great certainty. These historical paintings were preserved with great care by the Mexicans, and such of them as escaped destruction, at the time of the conquest by the Spaniards, are the sources from which the history of that country is derived.—But the Spaniards, ignorant of their use, and at first supposing them to be applied to idolatrous purposes, destroyed, with frantic zeal, all they could find.

131. *Cloth and Paper.* The materials used by the Mexicans for painting, were cloth made of the threads of the aloe, or the palm, dressed skins and paper. The paper was made of the leaves of a species of the aloe, steeped together like hemp or flax, then washed, stretched and smoothed. It was as

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thick as pasteboard, but softer, smoother, and easy to receive impressions. In general the sheets were long and rolled up for preservation, like the parchments of the ancients in Europe and Asia. The colors used in painting were obtained from plants and flowers, and were exquisitely beautiful.

132. *Sculpture and casting of Metals.* Although the Mexicans had not the use of iron or steel, yet by means of flint stone, they carved images in stone and wood, with great exactness. The images of their gods were numberless. But the casting of precious metals into curious figures, was an art in which the Mexicans excelled most nations which were more advanced in civilization. The founders made the figure of a fish, with the scales alternately one of gold and the other of silver; a parrot with a movable head, tongue and wings; an ape with a movable head and feet, with a spindle in its paw, in the act of spinning; and so exquisite was the work of some of these figures, that the Spaniards, fond as they were of the gold, valued the workmanship more than the metal.

133. *Mexican Stage.* The stage among the Mexicans was a square terrace raised and uncovered; or the lower area of some temple. Here actors displayed their comic powers in representing various characters and scenes in life. Some feigned themselves deaf, sick, lame, blind or crippled, and addressed an idol for the return of health. Some mimicked animals, or appeared under their names, disguised in the form of toads, beetles or lizards. These coarse representations were the dramatic amusements of the Mexicans, which concluded with a grand dance of the spectators.

134. *Manufactures.* The Mexicans had no wool, silk, hemp or flax; but cotton, fethers, hair, mountain palm and aloes, supplied their place. Of fethers, interwove with cotton, were formed mantles, gowns, carpets and bed curtains. Waistcoats for the nobles and other garments were made of cotton

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interwove with the finest hair from the belly of the rabbit. The leaves of the maguay furnished a fine thread, equal to that of flax; and the palm supplied that which was coarser. These were prepared for use, nearly in the manner we prepare flax and hemp. Of these plants also were made mats, ropes, shoes, and many other articles of common use.

135. *Food.* The principal plant cultivated for food was maiz; but cocoa, chia and beans were also used. Bread was made of maiz in this manner. The grain was first boiled with a little lime; when soft, it was rubbed between the hands, which took off the skin, then pounded into a paste and baked in a pan. The nobles mixed some fragrant herbs with their bread to give it a flavor. Cookery was the business of the women. The Mexicans not having cattle or sheep, reared and used vast numbers of fowls, and small animals; as turkies, quails, geese, ducks, deer, rabbits and fish. Their drinks were beverages made by fermentation from the juice of the maguay, or aloe, the palm, the stem of maiz and the like.



MEXICAN WOMEN BAKING BREAD.

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136. *Dress and Ornaments.* In the climate of Mexico, very little clothing was necessary. The poor wore a girdle; and the higher classes, a girdle, and a mantle or cloak over the shoulders, about four feet long, and in winter a waistcoat. The shoe was of lether or coarse cloth, under the foot tied with strings round the ankle. The Mexicans wore their hair long, thinking it dishonorable to be shaved. For ornaments they wore ear-rings, pendants at the under lip, or the nose; bracelets on the arms, and rings like a collar on the legs. The rich used pearls, emeralds and other gems set in gold; and the poor used shells, crystals, or some shining stones.

137. *Furniture of the houses.* The beds of the Mexicans did not accord with the finery of their dress. Their beds were two coarse mats of rushes, to which the rich added fine palm mats and sheets of cotton. The cover of the bed was a mantle, or a counterpane of cotton and fethers. The table was a mat spread on the ground; and napkins were used, as were plates, porringers, earthern pots and jugs, but no knives nor forks. For chairs, were used low seats of wood and rushes or palm, and reeds. The shell of a fruit like a gourd furnished cups. The Mexicans used no wax, tallow or oil for lights, but torches of wood, like pine knots. Tobacco was much used for smoking and in snuff. Instead of soap, were used the fruit and root of a particular tree.

138. *Amusements.* The Mexicans had no stringed instruments; but for music made use of horns, shells, and little pipes or flutes. They had also a kind of drum, which was a cylinder of wood, covered with a deer skin, well dressed and stretched, which they slackened or tightened. They had also a piece of wood, cylindrical and hollow, in which were two openings lengthwise; this was beat with two little sticks, whose ends were covered with elastic gum, to soften the sound. These instruments were ac-

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companied with singing; but their voices were harsh and offensive to European ears.



MEXICAN MUSICIANS.

139. *Dances.* The dances of the Mexicans were very graceful. They were of various kinds; sometimes in circles; sometimes in ranks; some dances were performed by men only, others by females. On such occasions, the nobles were dressed in their most pompous attire; adorned with bracelets, ear-rings, and various pendants of gold and jewels, and with various plumes. The little dance was performed for the amusement of the nobles, or in temples for devotion, or in private houses. This was performed by a few persons, who arranged themselves in parallel lines, with their faces directed sometimes one way, sometimes another, and they occasionally crossed and intermingled with each other.

140. *Great Dance.* The great dance was performed in a large open space of ground, or in the area of a temple. Hundreds of persons sometimes joined in it, with the music placed in the center of

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the area. The lords were arranged in two or three circles, near the center; at a distance, other circles were composed of persons of inferior rank, and the exterior circles were composed of young persons. All the dancers moved in circles; those near the center moved slowly; those more distant moved more briskly, so that all the circles moved round in the same time.

141. *Games and Feats.* The Mexicans had various games for public occasions, or for relaxation and amusement. One of these was the race, in which they were exercised from their childhood. They had also military games, in which the warriors represented a pitched battle. One of the most singular of their amusements was an exhibition of the flyers, used in certain great festivals. The manner is this. The stem of a lofty tree, stripped of its bark and branches, is fixed in the center of a square, with the end inserted in a wooden cylinder. From this hung four ropes, supporting a square frame, like a ship's main top. Between the cylinder and the frame were fixed four other ropes, which were twisted round the timber, as many times as there were revolutions to be made. These were drawn through holes in the frame.

142. *Manner of flying.* The four principal flyers, disguised as eagles, herons or other fowls, mounted the tree by means of a rope laced about it, tied the ropes round their bodies, and lanched from the frame with a spring, and began their flight with wings expanded. Their action put the frame and cylinder in motion; the frame by turning untwisted the ropes by which the flyers swung; and the lengthening of the ropes enlarged the circle of the flyers, and lowered them to the earth. While this process was going on, a man stood and danced on the top of the timber, beating a little drum or waving a flag.

143. *Other games.* The Mexicans were very fond of playing with a ball of three or four inches diame-

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ter, made of elastic gum. They played in parties, two against two, or three against three; all naked except a bandage round their middle. It was a rule of the game, not to touch the ball, except with the joint of the thigh, or the arm or elbow. The player who caused the ball to reach the opposite wall or made it rebound from it, gained a point.

Another play was, to place a beam upon the shoulders of two dancers, while a person danced on the top of it.

They also danced, one man on the shoulders of another, and a third, dancing on *his* head, and displaying great agility.



MEXICAN FEATS.

Such was the state of society in Mexico, when the Spaniards invaded and conquered the country in the year 1521.

144. *Other Indian Nations in North America.* The tribes of natives which were spread over the more northern regions of America, were far less advanced

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in knowledge, arts and civility, than the **Mexicans.** They all cultivated maiz and beans, which constituted no small part of their food. Corn and beans boiled together when green, they called *suckotash;* a dish held in great esteem by their conquerors, and much used by us at this day. But the cultivation of the earth was wholly performed by the women. The men were occupied in war, or in hunting or fishing, which supplied them with the flesh of deer, bears, beavers, moose, raccoon and the like. They had no drink but water.



INDIANS ROASTING FISH.

145. *Habitations and Furniture.* The dwellings of the savages were huts called *wigwams*, made with poles fixed in the ground, bent together, fastened at the top, and covered with mats of bulrushes. The fire was in the middle of the hut, and an opening was left at the top for the smoke to escape. Their beds were mats or skins spread on boards a little raised. For cooking they used pots made of clay; their dish-

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es and spoons were of wood, hollowed and made very smooth. Pails were formed of birch bark, made square, and furnished with a handle. Baskets were made of the same material, or of rushes, bents, husks of the maiz, silk grass, or wild hemp, curiously wrought and ornamented.

146. *Dress.* The natives of the northern parts of America had no clothing, when the English first came among them, except the skins of wild beasts, and a few mantles made of fethers curiously interwoven. But all the natives of this country were very fond of beads and trinkets, for ornaments; fastening them to their arms, legs, nose and ears. When the Europeans began to trade with them, they exchanged their skins for blankets, and other cloths, and these are their principal dress to this day: all savage nations are very fond of fethers.



INDIANS IN WINTER DRESS.

147. *Money and Arms.* The money of the northern Indians consisted in the wampumpeague, usually

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called *wampum*, which was made of small shells curiously joined and wrought into broad strings or belts. This was the medium of commerce, answering the purpose of silver and gold among other nations. The arms of the savages were bows and arrows, clubs, and especially the hatchet, called a *tomahawk*, which was a sharpened stone, with a handle. After the arrival of Europeans, they laid aside the stone, and procured iron hatchets. They throw these with astonishing dexterity, and are sure of hitting the object intended, at a great distance. They had no defensive armor, except a kind of shield made of bark.

148. *Canoes.* All uncivilized nations make use of canoes, formed of bark or the trunks of trees made hollow. These are of various sizes, from ten feet in length to a hundred. To save labor, the Indians apply fire to the trunk of a large tree and burn it hollow; then finish the canoe, by scraping and cutting. When bark is used, it is molded into a suitable shape, strengthened with ribs of wood, sewed with strings or threads of strong bark, and the seams smeared over with turpentine. The bark canoes are so light, that they are often carried by the Indians from river to river, or round falls and over necks of land.

149. *Virtues and Vices.* The good and bad qualities of Indians are few, or confined to a few objects. In general, a savage is governed by his passions, without much restraint from the authority of his chiefs. He is remarkably hospitable to strangers, offering them the best accommodations he has, and always serving them first. He never forgets a favor or an injury; but will make a grateful return for a favor, and revenge an injury whenever an opportunity offers, as long as he lives; and the remembrance is hereditary; for the child and grandchild have the same passions, and will repay a kindness, or revenge a wrong, done to their ancestor.

150. *Government and Religion.* The tribes of In-

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dians were under a government somewhat like a monarchy, with a mixture of aristocracy. Their chiefs, called sagamores, sachems, or cazekes, possessed the powers of government; but they usually consulted the old men of the tribe, on all important questions.

Their religion was idolatry, for they worshiped the sun, the moon, the earth, fire, images and the like. They had an idea of the Supreme Being, whom they called the *Great Spirit;* and they believed in an evil spirit. They had priests, called *powows*, who pretended to arts of conjuration, and who acted as their physicians.

QUESTIONS.

97. By whom and when was America first peopled?
98, 99. Manner of settlement of America?
100. When was Mexico peopled?
101. Condition of the aboriginals?
102. What is the climate of Mexico?
103. When was the city of Mexico founded? What was its site?
104. What were the buildings of the Mexicans?
105. What was the religion of the Mexicans?
106. What were the Mexican modes of worship?
107. What were the Mexican traditions respecting the deluge?
108. Describe the Mexican priests.
109. How did the Mexicans divide the year?
110. What ceremonies were used at the birth of a child?
111. What were the marriage ceremonies?
112. What were the funeral rites?
113. How were the Mexican youth educated?
114. What punishments were inflicted on the vices of youth?
115. What form of government had the Mexicans?
116. What ranks existed among the Mexicans?
117, 118. How were lands divided and held in Mexico?
119. What were the revenues of Mexico?
120. How was justice administered?
121, 122. What were the laws, crimes and punishments?

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123. What was the opinion of the Mexicans respecting war; and how were warriors rewarded?
124. What was the military dress?
125. What defensive arms were used?
126. What offensive arms were used?
127. What was the manner of making war?
128. What was the state of agriculture and gardening?
129. What money was used in America?
130. What was the language of Mexico? What did the Mexicans use for recording events?
131. What were the materials of cloth and paper?
132. What was the state of sculpture and castings?
133. What was the Mexican stage or theater?
134. What were the manufactures?
135. What was the food of the Mexicans?
136. What were the dress and ornaments of the Mexicans?
137. What was the furniture of the houses?
138. What were the amusements of the Mexicans?
139, 140. Describe the dances of the Mexicans?
141. What were the games and feats of the Mexicans?
142. Describe the flyers.
143. What other games were used?
144. Describe the Indians of North America.
145. What were their habitations?
146. What was the dress of the Indians?
147. What were their money and arms?
148. What sort of canoes did the Indians use?
149. What were the virtues and vices of the Indians?
150. What were the government and religion?

SECTION V.

DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

151. *Of Columbus.* Christopher Columbus, the first European who discovered the Western Continent, was a native of Genoa, and was bred to naviga-

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tion. By his knowledge of the form of the earth, and of geography and astronomy, and by some pieces of carved wood and a canoe, driven on shore by westerly winds, he was led to believe that there must be a continent on the west of the Atlantic to balance the vast tract of land on the east; and he imagined that by sailing westward, he might find a shorter course to China and the East Indies, than by traveling eastward. He therefore applied to the government of Genca for assistance to enable him to undertake a voyage of discovery. He did not succeed. He then applied to Portugal, but with no better success. He was thought, as men of genius are often thought, a visionary projector.

152. *Columbus's application to Spain.* Columbus then made application to Ferdinand, king of Spain, for ships and men to proceed on a voyage westward; but for some years, he did not obtain his request. Finally, by the influence of the queen, Isabella, he obtained three ships and ninety men. He also obtained a Commission, dated April 30, 1492, constituting him admiral, viceroy and governor, of all the isles and countries which he should discover and subdue, with full powers civil and criminal. With this authority, he sailed from Palos, in Spain, in August, 1492.

153. *First Voyage.* Not many days after Columbus left Spain, he was perplexed with the variations of the magnetic needle, which had not before been discovered, and which served to dishearten his mariners. To add to his perplexity, his seamen grew uneasy at venturing so far into an unexplored ocean, and threatened to throw him overboard, if he would not return. To quiet their minds, he promised that if land should not appear within three days, he would return. On the third day, land was discovered, to the inexpressible joy of Columbus and of his seamen, who now humbled themselves for their refractory conduct. The land first seen was one of the Bahama Islands, and on the 12th of October, O. S. 1492.

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154. *Discovery and settlement of Hispaniola.* Proceeding southward, Columbus discovered Cuba, and Hayti; to the latter he gave the name of Hispaniola. Here he landed, entered into a friendly intercourse with the natives, built a fort, in which he left a garrison of thirty-eight men, with orders to treat the natives with kindness, and sailed for Europe. On his voyage, a violent tempest arising, Columbus was apprehensive the ship would founder; and to afford a small chance that the world should not lose the benefit of his voyage, he wrote a short account of his discoveries, wrapped it in an oiled cloth, inclosed it in a cake of wax, and putting this into an empty cask, he committed it to the sea, in hopes that it might fall into the hands of some fortunate navigator, or be cast ashore. But the storm abated, and Columbus arrived safe in Spain.

155. *Second voyage of Columbus.* In Sept. 1493, Columbus sailed from Cadiz on his second voyage to the new world, and discovered the Caribbee isles, to which he gave their present names, Dominico, Maragalant, Guadaloupe, Montserrat and Antigua. Then steering for Cuba, he saw Jamaica, and proceeded to Hispaniola. On his arrival, he found that the men whom he had left in garrison, had been guilty of violence and rapine, and were all destroyed by the natives.

156. *First permanent settlement in America.* As the first colony which Columbus left, was cut off, he sought a more convenient and healthful situation, marked out the plan of a town, erected a rampart, and built houses. This town he called Isabella, in honor of the queen, his benefactress. The government of this colony he committed to his brother, Don Diego, who, after Columbus had departed for Europe, abandoned this spot, and removing to the south side of the isle, began the town called St. Domingo, the first permanent establishment in the new world. Columbus returned to Spain early in 1496.

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157. *Columbus's third voyage.* In May, 1498, Columbus left Spain on his third voyage, and proceeding farther southward, discovered and named *Trinidad*, and in August, discovered the main land, or continent of South America, along which he coasted two hundred leagues westward; then sailed to Hispaniola. When he arrived at St. Domingo, he found the colony in a mutinous state; but by prudent and firm measures, he composed the troubles. In the mean time, the discontented men repaired to Spain, and by false representations, persuaded the king to appoint Bovadilla, governor of the new world, with orders to take Columbus and send him to Spain. This commission was executed with inhuman severity, and the great Columbus was sent to Spain in chains. Such is the reward which great and good men receive from vile factious men.

158. *Name given to this Continent.* In 1499, Alonso Ojedo made a voyage to the western continent. With him was one Amerigo, or Americus Vespucius, a native of Florence, who wrote an account of the voyage, and pretending that he was the first discoverer of the main land, the country was called after him, AMERICA; which name, by the consent of nations, it has retained; to the injury of Cabot and Columbus, who had discovered the continent the preceding year.

159. *Columbus's fourth Voyage.* Columbus arrived in Spain bound like a criminal; but was soon set at liberty by order of the king, to whom he justified his conduct in the most satisfactory manner. But he did not recover his authority, and Ovando was appointed governor of Hispaniola, in the place of Bovadilla. Columbus however prepared for a fourth voyage in 1502; intent upon finding a passage to the East Indies by the west. In this voyage, he entered the gulf of Darien, and examined the coast. But meeting with furious storms, he bore away for Hispaniola, and was shipwrecked on Jamaica.

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160. *Fate of Columbus.* Being cast on an isle, at a distance of thirty leagues from Hispaniola, and his ships all destroyed, Columbus was in extreme distress. But the natives were kind, and furnished him with two canoes, in which two of his friends with some Indians rowed themselves to St. Domingo. But the governor, Ovando, meanly jealous of Columbus, delayed to send a single ship to bring him off, for eight months, during which time, Columbus was exposed to famine, to the natives and to the malice of his own mutinous seamen. At last he was relieved, and furnished with two ships, with which he sailed for Spain in 1504. Finding Isabella, his patroness, dead; and himself neglected, he sunk under his infirmities, and died May 20, 1506, in the 59th year of his age.

161. *Pope's grant to Spain.* The king of Spain, to obtain a secure title to the new world, obtained from Pope Alexander the sixth, a bull or patent, dated at Rome, May 4th, 1493, in which the objects of the grant are said to be, to humanize and christianize the savage nations of the new world. By this charter, the king of Spain was invested with sovereign jurisdiction over all the isles and lands which had been or should be discovered, west of a line running from pole to pole, at the distance of one hundred leagues west of all the Azores, and the Cape de Verd islands; to be held by him, his heirs and successors forever; excepting such isles and countries as were then actually possessed by some christian king or prince.

162. *Progress of the Spanish Discoveries and Settlements.* In the year 1500, one Pinzon, who had accompanied Columbus in his first voyage, sailed to America, crossed the equinoctial line, and discovered the Maranon, or Amazon, the largest river on the globe. In the same year, one Cabral, a Portuguese, pushed his adventures further south, and discovered the country now called Brazil. Pinzon made a second

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voyage in 1508, with Solis, and proceeded as far south as the river which they called the river of *Plata*, or silver. In 1509 two adventurers, Ojedo and Nicuessa, attempted to form settlements on the continent, within the gulf of Darien, but were repelled by the natives. In the following years, settlements were begun at Jamaica, Porto Rico, Darien and Cuba.

163. *Discovery of Florida and of the South Sea.* In 1512, John Ponce, who had subdued Porto Rico, fitted out three ships and sailing northward fell in with land in the 30th degree of latitude, which he took possession of and called Florida. In the following year, one Balboa ascended the mountains of Darien, the narrow isthmus which connects North with South America, and espied the great South Sea, now called the Pacific Ocean. Delighted with this discovery, he proceeded to the water's edge, and wading in, till the



BALBOA TAKING POSSESSION OF THE PACIFIC OCEAN.

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water reached his waist, armed with his buckler and sword, he took possession of the ocean in the name of his king.

164. *Discoveries in the Gulf of Mexico.* In 1517, Cordova sailed from Cuba, discovered the great Peninsula of Yucatan, and the bay of Campeachy. But landing at the mouth of a river to procure fresh water, a considerable part of his men were killed and he was forced to return to Cuba, where he soon died. The next year, a more considerable force, under Grijalva, visited the same bay and encountering the natives, defeated them not without difficulty. To this country Grijalva gave the name of *New Spain*, which name it still bears; as well as that of Mexico, the name of the country among the natives. This expedition returned to St. Jago without attempting a settlement. In the same year, one Garay coasted along the northern shore of the Gulf of Mexico, to the river Panuco.

165. *The conquest of Mexico.* In 1519, Velasquez, governor of Cuba, fitted out an armament of eleven small vessels, and six hundred and seventeen men, under the command of Fernando Cortez, for the invasion of Mexico. As fire arms were not generally in use, only thirteen men had muskets; the rest being armed with cross bows, swords and spears. Cortez had however ten small field pieces, and sixteen horses; the first of these animals ever seen in that country. With this small force, Cortez landed at Mexico, to encounter one of the most powerful empires. After many negotiations, alliances, marches and counter marches; many battles and extreme hardships, Cortez subdued the Mexican Empire, then under the government of the brave, the hospitable, but unfortunate Montezuma, and entered the city of Mexico in triumph, on the 13th of August 1521.

166. *Means by which Cortez entered Mexico.* It is a most instructive lesson which the fall of Mexico is

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calculated to teach. Cortez could not have made any impression on that great empire, containing many millions of people, had he not availed himself of the factions among the different provinces of the empire. But no sooner had he arrived, than one of the nations, which paid tribute to Montezuma, and was impatient to shake off the yoke, offered to join him. These were the Totonacas, who first assisted the Spaniards to conquer Mexico, and then were subdued in turn. Thus nations are often ruined by their own divisions; foolishly imagining to lessen the burdens of government, they revolt against their own king or state, join the invaders of their country, who first conquer their *foes*, and then rivet shackles on their *allies*.

167. *First voyage round the Globe.* While Cortez was conquering Mexico, Magellan, a distinguished navigator, who had served under the famous Portuguese adventurer, Alburquerk, fitted out five small ships and sailed from Spain in August 1519, in search of a passage to India by the west. Proceeding southward along the American coast, he entered the strait which now bears his name, doubled the southern point of this continent, lanched into the vast ocean, which he called the *Pacific*, touched at the Ladrones, and after enduring extreme distress from bad provisions and sickness, arrived at the Philippines, where a contest with the natives arose, in which he lost his life. But his officers proceeded on their voyage, passed the Cape of Good Hope, and arrived in Spain in September 1522. This was the first time that any mortal had sailed round the globe.

168. *Discovery of Peru.* After Balboa had discovered the South Sea, a settlement was made on the western side of Darien, called Panama. From this town, several attempts had been made to explore the southern continent, but without any remarkable occurrence. In 1524, three persons, Pizarro, Almagro and de Luque associated for the purpose of extending

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their adventures and discoveries. Their first expedition was attended with ill success. Pizarro however in a second attempt, sailed as far as Peru, and discovered that rich and flourishing country. Pleased with the discovery, he returned to Panama, and was sent by the governor to Spain for a commission, and a military force to support an expedition and insure success.

169. *Conquest of Peru.* Pizarro obtained a commission and a small force, and returned to Panama; from whence they sailed in February 1531, to attempt the conquest of one of the finest kingdoms in America, with no more than one hundred and eighty men. With these and a small re-enforcement, he marched to the residence of the king, and having invited him to a friendly interview, in which he attempted to persuade him to adopt the christian religion, he, with matchless perfidy, seized the monarch a prisoner, and ordering his soldiers to slay his unsuspecting and astonished attendants, four thousand were slain without resistance.

170. *Progress of Pizarro.* The Peruvian monarch, Atahualpa, was no sooner a prisoner, than he devised the means of procuring his release. Finding the Spaniards excessively eager for gold, he offered to fill the apartment in which he was confined, which was twenty two feet by sixteen, with vessels of gold and silver, as high as he could reach. This offer was accepted, and gold was collected from distant parts of the empire, until the treasure amounted to more than the value of two millions of dollars, which was divided among the conquerors. But the perfidious Pizarro would not then release the Inca; he still kept him a prisoner; and Almagro having joined him with a re-enforcement, they brought the Inca to a trial before a court erected for the occasion; charged him with being an usurper and an idolater, condemned and executed him. The

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Peruvian government being destroyed, all parts of the empire were successively subdued.

171. *State of Peru when conquered.* The Spaniards found the Peruvians farther advanced towards civilization, than any American nation, except the Mexicans; and in some respects, farther than that nation. About three hundred years before the invasion of the Spaniards, a man and woman of superior genius arrived in that country, who, pretending to be descended from the sun, commanded an uncommon degree of veneration. The man, whose name was Manco Capac, collected the wandering tribes into a social union, instructed them in the useful arts, curbed their passions, enacted salutary laws, made a judicious distribution of lands and directed them to be tilled; in short he laid the foundation of a great and prosperous empire. Mama Ocollo, the woman, taught the arts of spinning and weaving. Manco Capac was called *Inca*, or Lord, and his descendants governed this happy nation for twelve generations. By the laws of this empire, human sacrifices were forbid, and the general policy of its institutions was mild.

172. *Causes of the ruin of Peru.* Just before the Spaniards landed in Peru, that kingdom had been torn with factions and civil war. Huana Capac, the twelfth in descent from Manco, had two sons; one by a wife of the royal blood of the Incas, called Huascar; another named Atahualpa, by a woman of foreign blood. He appointed the latter his successor in the government of Quito, which disgusted the lawful heir, Huascar. This produced a war in which Atahualpa triumphed: Huascar was defeated, and taken prisoner. In this situation was the kingdom of Peru, when the Spaniards arrived. Thus weakened by internal divisions, it fell an easy prey to the invaders. Such are the deplorable effects of factions and dissensions, which usually begin in the lawless ambition of bold, daring men, and end in public misery!

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173. *First Expedition on the Maranon.** In the year 1540, Gonzalo, a brother of Pizarro, and governor of Quito, crossed the Andes with a body of troops, and a great number of Indians to carry their provisions, with a view to make discoveries. After a long march amidst precipices, rocks, thick woods and morasses, they arrived at a large river, called Napo, which is one of the head branches of the Maranon. Here they built a small vessel, on board of which were transported the provisions and baggage, under the command of Orellana, with fifty men, while the rest marched along the bank. But Orellana betrayed his trust, and being wafted along the stream with rapidity, he left Gonzalo and his attendants; entered the vast river, Maranon, and pursuing his course to the mouth, a distance of four or five thousand miles, he had the good fortune to reach the Spanish settlement at Cubaqua in safety. This was the first time that any European had explored the largest river on earth, and one of the boldest enterprises recorded. Gonzalo, confounded at the treachery of Orellana, was obliged to return to Quito, distant twelve hundred miles, in which journey, four thousand Indians and two hundred and ten Spaniards perished with famine and fatigue.

174. *Fate of Pizarro and Almagro.* Mankind are seldom contented even with the splendor of power and riches. The conquerors of Peru soon began to be jealous of each other, and to contend for dominion. Each having the government of a certain district of country, but the limits not well known, a civil war commenced, in which Almagro was defeated and taken prisoner; tried, condemned and executed. His son Almagro, though young, resolved to avenge his father's wrongs, and collecting a body of firm adherents,

* Improperly called Amazon.

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he privately marched to the house of Pizarro, attacked him at midday, and slew him and his attendants. Such was the fate of these bold, but inhuman conquerors, and such the reward of their cruelty, avarice and perfidy!

QUESTIONS.

151. Who discovered America? What led Columbus to suppose the existence of a continent west of Europe?

151, 152. To what courts did Columbus apply for assistance, and what was his success?

152, 153. When did Columbus first sail, and what difficulties did he encounter?

153, 154. When was the first land discovered, and what isle?

154. What lands did Columbus next discover, and settle? Being exposed to danger on his return to Europe, what plan did Columbus form to insure his discoveries from being lost?

155. What discoveries did Columbus make in his second voyage?

156. When and where was made the first permanent settlement in America?

157. What discoveries did Columbus make in his third voyage? What treatment did Columbus receive from his enemies?

158. From whom did this continent receive its name?

159. What discoveries did Columbus make in his fourth voyage?

160. What was the fate of Columbus?

161. What grant did the king of Spain obtain from the pope?

162. Who discovered the Maranon, or Amazon, the largest river in the world, and when? Who discovered Brazil?

163. Who discovered and named Florida? Who discovered the Pacific Ocean?

164. Who discovered Yucatan, and New Spain or Mexico?

165. By whom was Mexico conquered?

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166. By what means was Mexico conquered?
167. Who first sailed round the world, and what discoveries were made in the voyage?
168. Who discovered Peru?
169. Who conquered Peru? How did Pizarro treat the King of Peru?
170. By what means did Atahualpa, when a prisoner, attempt to obtain his release?
171. What was the state of Peru, when conquered, and who governed it?
172. What caused the ruin of Peru?
173. Who crossed the Andes and sailed down the Maranon?
174. What was the fate of Pizarro and Almagro?

SECTION VI.

DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT OF NORTH AMERICA.

175. *Of Cabot.* Soon after the new world was discovered by Columbus, a spirit of enterprise was excited in all the commercial nations of Europe. The first adventurer from England was John Cabot, a native of Venice, residing in Bristol; who, under a commission from Henry VII, sailed on a voyage of discovery. On the 24th of June 1494 or 5, he discovered land, which he called *Prima Vista*, which in Italian, his native language, signify *first sight.* This land is supposed to be Newfoundland. He discovered also an isle which he called St. John's, on which he landed. His son Sebastian is understood to have accompanied him in this voyage.

176. *Second Voyage.* King Henry granted to John Cabot and his three sons, Lewis, Sebastian and Sanctius, a commission dated March 5th, 1496, authorizing them to discover and take possession of unknown

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lands, and to erect his banners on any land by them already discovered. On the third of February 1498, he gave them a license to take ships for this purpose in any port of the kingdom. In this year, Sebastian Cabot first discovered the continent, north of the St. Lawrence, since called Labrador, and coasted along the shore from the sixty seventh degree of north latitude to Florida. He made a chart of the coast, which, for a century, hung under his picture in Whitehall. He was the first discoverer of the *continent*, for he made the land June 11, old style. Whereas, Columbus did not discover the continent till August 1.

177. *Other voyages to North America.* Cabot made a voyage to America and proceeded south as far as Brazil, in 1516. One Verrazano was sent by the French king to make discoveries in 1524, and this man sailed along the North American coast to the fiftieth degree of N. latitude. He named the country New France. In 1528, Narvaez, a Spaniard, sailed from Cuba with four hundred men, to make a settlement in Florida. He landed and marched into the country of the Apalaches; and after traveling over two or three hundred leagues of country, with incredible fatigue, finding no gold or silver of any value, harassed by the savages, and reduced by hunger to the necessity of feeding on human flesh, most of them perished and a few survivors only found their way to Mexico.

178. *First attempt to settle Canada.* One Cartier, a Frenchman, sailed to America and entered the bay of St. Lawrence, in 1534, with a view to find a northwest passage to India. He returned to France, but the next year he pursued the same course, entered the river, and penetrated as far as Montreal, where he built a fort and spent the winter. The next summer, he invited some of the natives on board of his ship, and treacherously carried them to France, to obtain from them a more perfect knowledge of the country. But the natives were so much provoked, that the inter-

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course of the French traders with them was much retarded. At this time a settlement was not effected.

179. *First settlement of Acadia.* Cartier obtained from the French king, Francis I. a commission for discovering and planting new countries, dated Oct. 17, 1540. The royal motive assigned in the commission was to introduce among the heathen, the knowledge of the gospel and the Catholic faith. With this authority, Cartier, in connection with the Baron de Roberval, brought two hundred men and women to America and began a plantation four leagues above the haven of St. Croix. This territory was called Acadia, by the French; but by the English, has been called Nova Scotia.

180. *Soto's expedition in Florida.* Ferdinand de Soto had served under Pizarro in the conquest of Peru, with such reputation as to obtain from the king of Spain the government of Cuba, with the rank of General of Florida, and Marquis of the lands he should conquer. This enterprising commander collected a body of nine hundred foot and three hundred and fifty horse, for an expedition into Florida, where he landed in May 1539. From the gulf of Mexico he penetrated into the country northward, and wandered about in search of gold, exposed to famine, hardships and the opposition of the natives. He pursued his course north to the country inhabited by the Chickesaws, where he spent a winter. He then crossed the Mississippi, being the first European that had discovered that vast river. After a long march into the country westward, in which Soto died, the remains of his troops returned to the Mississippi. Here they bilt a number of small vessels, in which they sailed down the stream, and made the best of their way to Panuco in Mexico, where they arrived in Sept. 1543. In this extraordinary expedition of more than four years duration, in the wilderness, and among hostile savages, more than half the men perished. Such was

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the unconquerable desire of gold in the Spaniards of that age!

181. *Settlement of South Carolina by the French.* In 1562, John Ribaud, a French Protestant, during the civil wars in France, formed a design of making a settlement in America, as a retreat from persecution. With two ships of war and a considerable body of forces, he sailed to America, made land in the thirtieth degree of latitude, and not finding a harbor, proceeded northerly, till he discovered a river, which he called May river, now Edisto. Near this he bilt a fort, in which he left a garrison of twenty-six men, and calling it *Caroline*, returned to France. During the following winter, the garrison mutined, assassinated Albert, their commander, and fearing they should not receive supplies, they embarked, in the spring, for Europe. Being becalmed for twenty days, and provisions failing, they appeased their hunger with human flesh; at last they were taken up by an English ship, landed in England, and conducted to the queen to relate their adventures.

182. *Progress of the French Settlement.* In 1654, Laudoniere, another Frenchman, carried another colony and planted them on the same spot. But the Spaniards, jealous of this settlement, sent a large force, which destroyed the colony, putting to death old and young, in the most barbarous manner, a few only escaping to France. Melandez, the Spanish commander, left there a garrison of twelve hundred men. One Gourges, a native of Gascony, to revenge this outrage, equipped three ships, landed in 1568, and with the assistanee of the Indians, took the fort, razed it to the ground, and slew most of the Spaniards. Not being in a situation to keep possession, the French returned to France, and both nations abandoned the country.

183. *The Voyages of Frobisher, Drake and Gilbert.* In 1567, Capt. Frobisher sailed from England

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for the purpose of discovering a north west passage to the East Indies; but after penetrating the northern bays, as high as the sixty third degree of latitude, the ice compelled him to desist and he returned. Sir Francis Drake circumnavigated the globe from 1577 to 1580; which was the second voyage round the world. In 1578, Sir Humfrey Gilbert obtained a patent from queen Elizabeth, for discovering and taking possession of unknown lands, which patent was dated June 11. The conditions of the grant were, that he and his associates should adhere to their allegiance, and observe the laws of England and pay to the crown a fifth of the gold and silver ore, which they should obtain. His first voyage was made in 1583. He discovered Newfoundland and the adjoining country, landed at St. John's, and took possession for the crown of England; but on his return his ship foundered and he was lost.

184. *Sir Walter Ralegh's Patent.* Queen Elizabeth, by patent dated March 25, 1584, granted to Sir Walter Ralegh authority to discover, occupy and govern "remote, heathen and barbarous countries," not previously possessed by any christian prince or people. Under this commission, two ships commanded by Amidas and Barlow, arrived in America, in July 1584. These men landed at Roanoke, took possession of the country for the crown of England, and called it *Virginia.* The spot where they took possession is now within the limits of North Carolinia. They returned and giving a flattering account of the country, Sir Richard Grenville was sent the next year to begin a settlement.

135. *First Attempts to settle Virginia.* The adventurers under Sir Richard Grenville were one hundred and seven, who fixed their residence on the isle of Roanoke, and were left there under the command of Mr. Lane. These persons rambling into the country, without due caution, or provoking the In-

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dians by their lawless conduct, many were cut off by the savages; others perished with want. The survivors were taken to England by Sir Francis Drake, the following year, after his expedition against the Spaniards, in which he sacked St. Jago in the Cape de Verds, pillaged St. Domingo, took Carthagena and forced the inhabitants to ransom it; then took and destroyed the fort at Augustine in Florida.

186. *Progress of the Settlements in Virginia.* Within a fortnight after the first colony had departed for England, Sir Richard Grenville arrived with provisions and an additional number of adventurers. Not finding the former colony, he left a few people and returned to England. In 1587 a third expedition was prosecuted under Mr. White, with three ships, and one hundred and fifteen persons were left at Roanoke. It was three years before any supplies were sent to maintain this colony, and when Governor White arrived in 1590, no Englishmen were to be found, and it was evident that they had perished with hunger or been slain by the savages. The last adventurers therefore returned, and all further attempts to establish a colony in Virginia were postponed.

187. *Gosnold's Voyage to America.* In the year 1602, Capt. Gosnold sailed from England with a small number of adventurers, arrived at Cape Cod and coasting southward landed on Cattehunk, the most southerly of the Elizabeth Isles. On a small isle, in a fresh water pond, within the large isle, he bilt a hut and remained in it about six weeks. But his men not being willing to be left there, they all returned and effected nothing. Gosnold gave Cape Cod its name, from the abundance of Cod Fish about it—He also named the Elizabeth Islands, and Martha's Vineyard. But the isle which he called Martha's Vineyard is a small isle near it, now called Noman's land; the name has since been transfer-

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ed to the present isle of that name, which he called Dover Cliff, from the resemblance of the high steep bank, now called Gay Head, to the cliffs of Dover in England.

188. *French Settlements.* The French King, by letters patent, dated November 8th, 1603, granted to de Monts, the sole jurisdiction over the country called *Acadia*, extending "from the fortieth to the forty-sixth degree of latitude," with the title of Lieutenant General, with power to appoint officers civil and military, to bild forts, towns and the like. Under this patent, were made the French settlements on the Lawrence and in Nova Scotia, which afterwards proved the cause and the scene of wars between France and England, and the source of innumerable calamities to the English Colonies, until the peace of 1763.

189. *Voyages of Davis and Weymouth.* In 1585, Capt. John Davis made an attempt to find a north west passage to India, in which he proceeded to the sixty seventh degree of latitude, where meeting with fields of ice, in the strait that bears his name, he returned. The next year he pursued the same track and penetrated Baffin's bay to the eightieth degree of latitude, but returned, having done nothing, but barter a few toys for seal skins. In 1605, Sir George Weymouth made a like attempt, but fell to the southward, coasted along New England, entered the bay of Pemaquid, but returned without accomplishing any important object, except carrying to England three natives, who were afterwards useful to the Plymouth company in their attempts to settle America.

190. *First Charter of Virginia.* The first grant from the crown of England, under which effectual settlements were made in Virginia and New England, was dated April 10, 1602. By this charter, king James assigned to Sir Thomas Gates and oth-

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ers, all the lands in America from the latitude of 34 degrees to 45, all which was then called Virginia. But by this charter two companies were constituted. One called the *London* Company, and to this were assigned all the lands between 34 and 41 degrees of latitude, extending inland one hundred miles from the sea coast, with all the isles within one hundred miles of the main land. To the other, called the *Plymouth* company, were assigned the lands between 38 and 45 degrees of latitude, extending one hundred miles into the main land, with all the isles within one hundred miles. The first tract was called *South* Virginia, and the other *North* Virginia.

191. *Second Charter to the London Company.* By charter dated May 23, 1609. King James incorporated the London company with full powers of government in America. A council was appointed resident in England, with powers to appoint the governor and other officers of the Virginia colony. By this charter, the boundaries of Virginia were enlarged; the grant extending from Point Comfort on the north two hundred miles, and on the south, two hundred miles along the sea coast, and westward and north westward into the mainland throughout from sea to sea, with the isles within a hundred miles of the coast.

192. *Settlement of Virginia.* Under the authority of the first patent, the London company sent Capt. Newport to Virginia at the close of the year 1606, with a company of adventurers, Mr. Wingfield being their President. As the usual course from England to America, at that time, was by the West Indies, Newport did not arrive till the end of April 1607. Entering the bay of Chesapeak, he gave name to Cape Henry, sailed into the Powhatan or James River, and began a plantation, called Jamestown, in which he left 104 persons and returned to England. The next year he carried 120 persons to join the colony, with supplies of provisions.

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193. *Voyage of Sir George Somers.* In 1609, Sir George Somers and Sir Thomas Gates sailed for Virginia, with a number of ships and five hundred adventurers, consisting of men, women and children. Before they arrived they were overtaken with a tremendous tempest and obliged to run one of their ships ashore on the isle to which the name of *Somers* was at first given, but which is now called *Bermuda.* The isle was uninhabited, but with such materials as they had saved from their ship, or found on the spot, they bilt a small pinnace or two, and after several months residence on Bermuda, sailed to Virginia. Finding the colony reduced by sickness and want, they resolved to abandon the country and actually sailed for England. But the next day, meeting Lord Delaware with fresh supplies, they all returned, and prosecuted the planting of the country. In 1611, Sir Thomas Dale arrived with 300 additional settlers, and the colony was established.

194. *Third Virginia Charter.* A third charter was obtained by the London company, dated March 12, 1612. The chief object of this, seems to have been to obtain an enlargement and an alteration of the powers of the company; as the first governors of the colony found many of the settlers disobedient and refractory; and also to extend the limits of the grant so as to comprehend the isle of Bermuda, which by the shipwreck of Sir George Somers, had been explored, and was deemed an object of magnitude to the company, but did not fall within their patent. In the third charter, the jurisdiction of the company was extended over all isles within three hundred leagues of the boundary of the first patent on the ocean, and between 30 and 41 degrees of latitude. This included Bermuda.

195. *Attempt to settle North Virginia or New-England.* In 1606, the Plymouth company sent Capt. Challons to make further discoveries and begin a

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plantation in America; but steering southward he was taken by a Spanish fleet and carried to Spain. A ship under Capt. Prinn, arrived, explored the rivers and bays, but not finding Challons, returned. The next year, Capt. Popham, with two ships, and one hundred adventurers, came to America, and began a plantation on Monhegan, an isle near the mouth of Sagadahoc, now called the Kennebec, in the month of August. But the following winter proving to be unusually severe, President Popham dying, and a magazine of their provisions being burnt, the settlement was broke up, and the survivors returned to England.

196. *Voyages of Hudson.* Henry Hudson, an Englishman, probably in the service of the Dutch, sailed in quest of a North West Passage, in 1607, and penetrated as far north as to the eightieth degree of latitude. From him were named the strait and great bay at the north of Labrador. He made a second voyage the next year, to the same region, without success. In this voyage, it is supposed he sailed along the coast southward, discovered and gave name to the river which washes New-York and Albany.

197. *Settlement of New-York.* Hudson was in the service of the Dutch East India Company, or sold his claims to that company, which obtained a patent for an exclusive trade on the river Hudson. In pursuance of which, a number of trading adventurers bilt a fort at Albany, in 1612 or 13, and in 1614 on the isle Manhadoes, or Manhattan, now New-York. The country was called New Netherlands; the settlement on Manhattan was called New Amsterdam; which names they retained, till the conquest of the country by the English in 1664. By charter dated June 3, 1621, an exclusive right to trade to America was vested, by the States General, in the West India company, and the settlement on Manhattan was prosecuted with success.

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198. *Newfoundland.* An attempt was made to settle the large but barren isle, Newfoundland, under a grant of king James to the earl of Northampton and others, dated April 27, 1610. A small party began a plantation in the same year; but the isle is not yet populous; the climate being cold and the soil not fruitful. The isle is principally valued as a shelter for the fishermen, and a station for drying cod fish, which are taken in vast quantities on its banks.

199. *Settlement of Bermuda.* The London company having obtained a grant of Bermuda, they sold the property of it to one hundred and twenty of their company, who obtained a charter in 1612, and sent a colony of sixty persons there, the same year, under the government of Richard Moor, calling the isles after Sir George Somers. In the course of the following year, five ships were sent with near five hundred additional adventurers, and the colony was established. This cluster of isles had been discovered almost one hundred years before, by one Bermuda, a Spaniard: and they still bear his name, in common language.

200. *Name of New-England.* Capt. John Smith, a famous adventurer, sailed with two ships, to the coast of America, in 1614; and while his men were employed in fishing, he ranged along the coast from Monhegan to Cape Cod. He left one ship, and went to England in the other; where he formed and published a chart of the coast, which he presented to Prince Charles, who gave the country the name of *New-England.* Capt. Hunt, whom he sent with the other ship, treacherously took twenty of the natives, in his ship, and carried them to Malaga where he sold them for slaves. This provoked the Indians to such a degree as to render it difficult and dangerous to trade with them; and the good effects of a voyage the same year, made by Capt. Harley to Martha's Vineyard, were prevented by the opposition of the In-

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dians, who manned a great number of canoes, attacked and wounded the master and many of the crew.

201. *Several voyages to America.* The brave Capt. Smith, attempting to sail to America in 1615, to begin a settlement, lost his masts in a gale, and put back to Plymouth. Embarking in another vessel immediately, he was taken by French ships of war and carried to France. In 1616 it appears that he was in England, for he published his account and his map of New England. In this latter year, Capt. Baffin renewed the attempt to find a north west passage to China, explored Hudson's Bay, entered the Bay called by his name, and ascended to the 78th degree of latitude. At this time the fisheries on the coast were prosecuted with great numbers of ships and great success. In 1619, Capt. Dermer passed through Long Island Sound; and he was probably the first European who explored the coast of Connecticut.

202. *Origin of the Puritans.* The religious sect denominated *Puritans*, were so called, either from the strictness and *purity* of their religious opinions and morals; or from their attempts to *purify* the first liturgy, formed in the reign of Edward VI. from the remains of popish errors in doctrines and ceremonies. The reformation begun by Henry VIII. consisted chiefly in detaching the English church from the pope's power, and constituting the king of England the supreme head of the church. In the reign of his son and successor, Edward VI. a liturgy, or form of divine service was adopted. But his successor, queen Mary, was a papist, and she endeavored to re-establish popery in England. The consequence was, a most cruel persecution of the reformers in England, many of whom were burnt at the stake for refusing to comply with the popish rites. This persecution drove many of the reformers to the continent, who took refuge in France, Flanders, Germany and Switzerland.

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203. *Division among the refugees.* The exiles who fled from persecution in England settled in various places, but were most numerous in Frankfort, where they were admitted to unite with a French church of reformers. Here a division arose among them; some choosing to use Edward's liturgy without alteration; others contending for a form of divine service more pure, and free from popish doctrines and ceremonies. Hence a separation took place; and those who desired a purer form of service retired to Geneva, and adopted the Genevan service. This separation gave rise to the distinction of *Conformists* and *Puritans*. After the death of queen Mary, Elizabeth succeeded to the throne of England; and as she professed to be favorable to the reformation, most of the exiles returned to England, in expectation of enjoying protection.

204. *Measures under Elizabeth.* Soon after Elizabeth ascended the throne of England, the laws in favor of popery, enacted in the reign of Mary, were repealed, and an act of parliament restored to the English crown the supremacy in all ecclesiastical and civil affairs; and another established uniformity of Common Prayer. Elizabeth was an arbitrary princess, and seems to have been more careful to vindicate her supremacy over the church, than to reform the doctrines or worship. By an act of parliament, the queen was authorized to appoint commissioners to visit churches, and reform all errors, heresies and schisms. Under these laws, Elizabeth took the most violent measures to enforce uniformity in church discipline and service. The liturgy of Edward was adopted with some alterations; and all persons were enjoined to use it. Those of the reformed who refused to comply with the requisitions of the statutes, and worship in the mode prescribed, were subjected to severe penalties.

205. *State of the church.* In Elizabeth's reign,

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many of the churches were not supplied with pastors. Very few had ministers who could preach; the only public worship they enjoyed was the reading of the service or homilies; and the major part of the beneficed clergy were illiterate men, mechanics, or mass priests in disguise; many churches were closed and in some dioceses a sermon was not to be heard in the compass of twenty miles. The puritans, who could not conscientiously subscribe to the articles, or conform to the church forms of service, were compelled to collect for worship in private houses, with the utmost secresy, as the first christians did, under the persecutions of the Roman emperors. Hundreds of puritan ministers were silenced, or deprived of their livings, and many were imprisoned, while their families were starving. These persecutions were continued, with little abatement, for forty or fifty years.

206. *Separation from the English church.* The dissenters were very reluctant to separate from the established church; for many years they made efforts, by petitions, to obtain toleration; but the queen, the archbishops, and most of the bishops, were inflexible; and no toleration could be obtained. At length, a number of puritans, headed by one Brown, abandoned the episcopal church. They were called *Brownists*, from the name of their leader, a hot-headed young clergyman, who preached with great vehemence, against the discipline and ceremonies of the church, and gained popularity. For this offense, he was taken by a sherif, and conveyed to London, where he confessed his fault and obtained his release. He was afterwards repeatedly imprisoned, as were some of his adherents. At length, Brown and his congregation removed to Holland, where his church crumbled to pieces. Brown returned to England, renounced his principles, and obtained the rectory of a church in Northamptonshire, where he died in 1630.

207. *Continued persecutions.* Although the Brown-

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lists in Holland were dispersed, yet in England, puritans of more moderation were very numerous, and they were firm in maintaining their religious principles. They were persecuted indeed, and the books which they published were prohibited by the queen's authority. Two persons who circulated their books, were taken and hanged. Many of the puritans were taken from their families and imprisoned; some were banished and others put to death. In the year 1604, three hundred ministers were deprived of their livings, or excommunicated, or cast into prison, or forced to leave their country.

208. *Removal to Holland.* The puritans in the northern and middle counties of England, living remote from each other, formed two distinct churches or societies, one of which chose John Smith for their pastor; the other, chose John Robinson for their pastor and William Brewster for their elder. They used to meet in private for worship, but they were frequently disturbed by officers, and some of them were ruined by persecution. At length, Smith and his adherents passed over to Holland. A party of puritans had before left England for the same country. They hired a Dutch ship at Hull, but as they were proceeding to embark, they were pursued by officers and soldiers; to escape them, the men hurried on board, but their wives were left. These were brought before one magistrate and another, and harrassed for a time; but no evidence being found against them, they were dismissed, and at last were permitted to join their husbands in Holland.

209. *Removal of John Robinson.* John Robinson and his congregation were the *founders of the colony of Plymouth* in Massachusetts. They removed to Amsterdam in the year 1608. But on account of some differences with another congregation under Mr. Smith, they removed in about a year to Leyden, where they lived in harmony, till they removed to America.

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These adventurers attempted to procure a patent under the Virginia Company; but they found it very difficult, on account of the odiousness of their principles. They finally obtained one in the name of John Wincob, but he failing to remove to America, it was of no use, and they resolved to remove without one.

210. *Voyage of the first settlers.* The first colony consisting of a part only of Mr. Robinson's congregation, sailed from Holland in July 1620, and put into Southampton in England, where a larger ship was prepared. They left that port in August, but the ship being leaky, they put into Dartmouth, from whence they sailed in two ships on the 21st of the same month. After proceeding a hundred leagues, they were compelled to return to Plymouth; one ship being leaky was condemned, and the other proceeded on her voyage. This ship left England, Sept. 6th, and arrived in November at Cape Cod; the company intended to bear away to Hudson's river, but were terrified with the breakers on the shoals, and changing their course, put into harbor.



LANDING AT PLYMOUTH.

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211. *Progress of the settlers.* This colony did not arrive till the 11th of November O. S. when the weather was cold, and then they had not determined on a spot for their settlements. Parties were dispatched to explore the country, which, after incredible sufferings from cold, snow and rain, found a harbor. Here the people landed on the 20th December 1620, after prayers and thanks to heaven, for safety and guidance, and immediately began to erect buildings, giving to the plantation the name of *Plymouth*, after the name of the town which they last left in England. Before they landed, they signed articles by which they formed themselves into a body politic. By means of diseases occasioned by colds and severe sufferings, the settlers, who were one hundred and one souls, lost half their number, in about five months.

212. *First cultivation of Maiz or Indian Corn.* On the opening of spring, the settlers sowed barley, and peas which produced an indifferent crop. Indian corn was the grain which furnished them with a great part of their subsistence, but as they never before saw it, Squanto, an Indian who had been carried to Spain by Capt. Hunt, but had returned, assisted them in planting and dressing it. This was the beginning of the cultivation of a grain which is the staple production of New-England.

213. *Patent to the Duke of Lenox and others.* In the very month, when the first settlers arrived in America, King James granted a patent to the Duke of Lenox and others, dated November 3, 1620, incorporating them with the style of the "Council established at Plymouth, in the county of Devon, for the planting and governing of New-England in America," with full powers to purchase and hold lands, appoint officers and make laws. The limits of the grant to them were, "from 40 to 48 degrees of latitude, throughout the main lands from sea to sea," with the isles adjoining, provided they were not occupied by any oth-

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er Christian prince or state, and on condition of paying to the crown a fifth of the gold and silver ore they should find and obtain. By this patent, the territory granted, which had been before called *North Virginia*, received the name of *New-England* from royal authority, and from this were derived all the subsequent grants of the several parts of the territory.

214. *Grants to John Mason and Ferdinando Gorges.* By a deed, dated March 9, 1621, the council of Plymouth granted to John Mason, the lands from Naumkeag, now Salem, to the Merrimac, extending inland to the heads of those rivers; the lands on which are now built Beverly, Ipswich, and Newburyport. This district was called *Mariana*. By another grant, dated August 10, 1622, the council assigned to Gorges and Mason jointly all the lands between the Merrimac and Sagadahoc, extending westward to the rivers of Canada, which district was called *Laconia*. Within this grant lies the present State of New-Hampshire.

215. *Settlement of New-Hampshire.* Under the grants of Gorges and Mason, a number of persons arrived in the river Piscataqua in 1623 and began two settlements; one at the mouth, at a place called the little harbor; the other at the place now called Dover. These settlements were enlarged at first very slowly, but they were the small beginnings of the present State of New-Hampshire.

216. *Grant of Nova Scotia.* William Alexander, a Scots gentleman, obtained from king James a grant dated September 10, 1621, of the lands extending from cape Sable to St. Mary's Bay, thence to the source of the river St. Croix, thence northerly to the nearest river or harbor on the St. Lawrence or Iroquois, thence along the bank of that river to a harbor called Graspe, thence easterly to the north point of Cape Breton, and thence to Cape Sable. To this

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district was then given the present name *Nova Scotia*, which signifies New Scotland. This district was a part of the lands granted by the French king to de Monts, in 1603, and which has since been the subject of contest between Great Britain and France. This grant was confirmed to Alexander by king Charles the first, by patent dated July 12, 1625.

217. *Grant to Robert Gorges.* Robert Gorges, the son of Ferdinand, obtained a grant from the council of Plymouth, dated Dec. 30, 1622, of a tract of land on the north side of the bay of Massachusetts, ten miles in breadth and extending thirty miles into the land. Under this grant, he attempted a settlement, the next year at the place now called Weymouth; the spot which a company of adventurers, under one Weston, had occupied the year before and abandoned. But the settlers were not contented with the situation or with the country; and soon forsaking the place, the intention of Gorges was frustrated. In 1625, Capt. Wollaston, with a small company, arrived and planted themselves at Mount Wollaston, now Quincy. With them was one Morton, a lawyer, who gave the settlers great trouble, and who was finally seized by the Plymouth people and sent a prisoner to England.

218. *Charter of Massachusetts.* By deed bearing date March 19, 1628, the Plymouth company granted to Sir Henry Rosewell and others, all the lands lying between a line three miles north of Merrimac River, and a line three miles south of every part of Charles River, and of the bay of Massachusetts, and extending with the same breadth, throughout the main lands from the Atlantic to the South Sea. A charter dated March 4, 1629 was obtained from the crown of England, by which that grant was confirmed, and the company erected into a corporation, with ample powers of government. Matthew Cradock was appointed the first governor, and sworn March

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18, 1629. Under this charter was Massachusetts settled.

219. *Settlement of Salem.* In the year 1628, a company of adventurers under Mr. John Endicott, arrived at Naumkeag, the Indian name of a river, and began a plantation, which was called *Salem.* A small settlement under Mr. Oldham and Mr. Conant had been begun at Nantasket in 1624; and the people removed to Cape Ann, in the following year. But all these small settlements were brought under the government of the Salem colony.

220. *Settlement of Charlestown.* In 1630, a considerable fleet arrived at Salem, with fifteen hundred passengers, and some of the most respectable of the primitive families in New-England, Governor Winthrop, Governor Dudley, Sir Richard Saltonstall and many others. Not liking that place as a capital town, they removed and planted themselves at Charlestown.

221. *Progress of the settlements to the building of Boston.* Unfortunately many of the passengers were taken sick on the voyage, and a malignant fever in one of the ships in 1629, was communicated to the settlers on shore, which occasioned an alarming mortality. This and other discouragements induced more than one hundred of the people to return, by the first ships, to England. But most of them persevered, and conceiving the peninsula, on the other side of the river, to be a safe and convenient place for their principal town, they removed before winter, began the town and named it Boston, after the town of that name in England. Sir Richard Saltonstall's company sat down at Watertown; Mr. Warham and his people planted Dorchester.

222. *Plymouth Patent.* In January 1630, the council for planting New-England, granted to Governor Bradford of Plymouth, and his associates, a patent of a tract of land, extending from a rivulet called Cohasset to Narraganset River and westward to

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a country called Paconokit; and a tract of fifteen miles on each side of the river Kennebec, with full powers of colonial government. The settlement at Plymouth constituted a colony distinct from Massachusetts, until the year 1692, when it was annexed to Massachusetts.

223. *Of Connecticut.* The settlers at Manhattan and in Massachusetts, very soon obtained a knowledge of the fertility of the lands on the river Connecticut, and laid claim to the territory. The Plymouth people formed a design of beginning a plantation there, and applied to the Massachusetts settlers to join them in 1633. The governor and council of Massachusetts declined, as they were not certain the territory fell within their patent. In the summer of 1633, a bark was sent to Manhattan by the governor of Massachusetts, for the purpose of signifying to the Dutch governor, Van Twilly, that the English colonies claimed Connecticut by virtue of their charter: To which the Dutch governor replied, in a polite letter, that the Dutch company claimed it also. Both parties desired the other to forbear making any plantation on that river.

224. *First settlements on the Connecticut.* In October 1633, a small vessel was sent by the Plymouth colony, to erect a trading house on the bank of the Connecticut. When passing up the river, the men found the Dutch had arrived there before them, and had bilt a fort which they called Good Hope, on the west bank, near the mouth of a small river, within the present town of Hartford. The Dutch forbad the men to proceed, threatening to fire on them; but the Plymouth men, disregarding the threat, advanced a few miles further, and erected a trading house within the present town of Windsor. The Dutch sent to Holland for a commission to dispossess them, and the next year, a party attempted it; but after some menaces, they departed without committing any violence.

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225. *Settlement of Wethersfield.* In June 1635, a bark of forty tons and twenty servants, belonging to Sir Richard Saltonstall, arrived at Boston from England; being sent to begin a plantation on the Connecticut. These with a few adventurers from Watertown, repaired to Connecticut and began a settlement at Pequaug which they called *Wethersfield.* This was probably in July, for the ancient laws of the colony declare Wethersfield to be the oldest town on the river. The bark, after landing the people, returned, and on her passage to England, was cast away on the isle of Sable, but the seamen were saved.

226. *Settlement of Windsor.* In the summer of 1635, the people of Dorchester began a plantation near the Plymouth trading house. This was in the latter part of July or beginning of August. The Plymouth people were much offended, and complained of this as an injury: for they considered their prior possession as giving them a fair claim to the lands, and they had also purchased them of the Indians. The controversy however was adjusted by making satisfaction to the Plymouth men, or the latter relinquished their claims; and the Dorchester people, continuing on the lands, began the town of Windsor.

227. *Progress of settlements on the Connecticut.* In October 1635, the Dorchester people, to the number of sixty, with their cows and swine, traveled by land to the Connecticut, to join their brethren at Windsor. It being late in the season, and no fodder being provided, most of the cattle died in the ensuing winter. A part of them remained on the east side of the river and lived by browsing on the shrubs. Two shallops laden with goods and provisions, were dispatched by water, but were cast away at the Gurnet near Plymouth, and all the people perished. The people of Connecticut waited for their provisions, till famine threatened them; and then went down the river, in hopes of meeting the expected supplies. Being dis-

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appointed, they embarked on board of a vessel at the mouth of the river, and after great distress, arrived at Boston, having lost some of their number by hunger. Those who wintered in Connecticut were obliged to eat acorns, malt and grains. The value of the cattle which died was two thousand pounds sterling.

228. *Settlement of Hartford.* The congregation at Newtown, now Cambridge, with Mr. Hooker their pastor, left that place early in summer 1636, and traveled by land to Connecticut, driving one hundred and sixty cattle, through a pathless wilderness, without shelter, or bridges over rivers. They began a plantation and called it Newtown, which name was afterward exchanged for Hartford. The Indian name was Sukeeg. The towns of Wethersfield, Windsor and Hartford being thus settled, associated and chose magistrates to regulate their common concerns. In 1639. they formed a regular constitution and chose Mr. Haynes their first governor.

229. *Of Saybrook.* The earl of Warwick, one of the Plymouth company had granted to Lord Say and Seal and others, a patent dated March 19th, 1631, of the territory in New England, extending westward of the river Narraganset forty leagues, in a straight line near the sea shore, and all the lands of and within that breadth to the South Sea. In October 1635, John Winthrop, the son of the governor of Massachusetts, arrived at Boston, with a commission from Lord Say and others, to erect a fort at the mouth of the Connecticut, to secure the river and territory from the Dutch. His commission constituted him governor of Connecticut for one year. This patent interfered with the plantations already begun on the Connecticut; but it was agreed by the government of Massachusetts and Mr Winthrop, that the settlers of three towns on the Connecticut, should either leave the place upon full satisfaction, or afford ample room for Mr. Winthrop and his associates.

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230. *Settlement of Saybrook.* In November 1635, Mr. Winthrop sent two small vessels, with an engineer, workmen and materials to bild a fort at the mouth of the Connecticut. The place they selected was on the west bank of the river, and they gave the settlement the name of Saybrook, combining the titles of two of the patentees, Lords Say and Brook. In July 1639, George Fenwick, agent of the patentees, arrived from England, with his family, at Boston, and repaired to Saybrook to prosecute the plantation.

231. *Settlement of New Haven.* In July 1637 arrived at Boston, Mr. Davenport, Mr. Eaton and a number of adventurers. After exploring the country westward of Saybrook, they built a hut, at a place called Quinnipiac, where a few persons remained during the winter. In April 1638, Mr. Davenport and his company arrived from Boston and began a plantation, which they called New Haven. They immediately devoted a day to religious exercises and entered into a covenant to make the rules of scripture the basis of their civil and religious government. In June 1639, the planters assembled and formed a constitution of government; and in October following, an election of officers was held, in which Mr. Eaton was chosen governor. They purchased the lands of the sachem of the country, and engaged to defend him and his people from the Pequots and Mohawks.

232. *Settlement of Milford and Guilford.* In February 1639, a number of persons, mostly from Wethersfield, purchased from the Indians, Wopowage, and began a settlement which they called *Milford*, ten miles west of New Haven. In September of the same year, another company purchased Menunkatuc, and began a plantation which they called *Guilford*, sixteen miles east of New Haven. The chief men were chosen magistrates and judges to preserve order and distribute justice, until a constitu-

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tion of Government should be framed and established.

233. *Settlement of Fairfield and Stratford.* Mr. Ludlow, of Windsor, who had traversed the lands west of Quinnipiac, in pursuit of the Pequots in 1637, was so well pleased with their fertility, that he and a few friends purchased a large tract at Unquowa, and began a settlement in 1639, called *Fairfield.* This was augmented by adventurers from Watertown and Concord in Massachusetts. In the same year, a company of men from England and Massachusetts, purchased Cupheeg and Poquonnuc, and began the town of *Stratford.*

234. *Delaware Purchase and Stanford.* In 1640, New Haven made a purchase of Rippowams; and of tracts of land on both sides of Delaware bay, on which they erected trading houses, and sent about fifty families to begin a plantation, which in two years was broke up by mortal diseases, and the attacks of the Swedes. They also purchased on Long Island the land now called *Southhold.* In the same year, a violent controversy divided the church in Wethersfield, and one part purchased of New Haven the lands at Rippowams and began the town of *Stamford.*

235. *Purchase of Saybrook.* In the year 1640, four distinct colonies were settled and their governments formed, viz. Plymouth, Massachusetts. Connecticut and New Haven. The plantation at Saybrook remained independent of the government of these colonies, under the direction of Fenwick. But in December 1644, Mr. Fenwick, as agent for the patentees, sold the fort at Saybrook and its appurtenances, to the Connecticut colony; and engaged to convey all the lands between the fort and Narraganset river, if they should come into his power. In consideration of these grants, Connecticut agreed to pay to Mr. Fenwick, certain fixed duties on articles exported from the river, for ten years. But these

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duties, in 1646, were commuted for the sum or value of one hundred and eighty pounds, in certain articles of produce, to be paid annually for ten years.

236. *Union of the Colonies.* Although by a mortal pestilence which spread among the natives, about the year 1617 and 18, the tribes between the Narraganset and Penobscot, had been greatly reduced and weakened, and the Pequot tribe had been destroyed by the Connecticut settlers in 1637; yet the country contained numerous tribes, and sufficient to exterminate the infant settlements, if they chose to unite and take up the hatchet. The colonies were also exposed to the Dutch. For the greater security therefore the four colonies united in 1643, in articles of confederation, by which they agreed to succor, aid and support each other, and to maintain the independence of each. Annual meetings of their commissioners were to be held at Boston, Hartford, New Haven and Plymouth in rotation. The charges of war for the common defense were to be assessed on each colony, according to the number of males between sixteen years old and sixty. Massachusetts was to furnish one hundred soldiers and each of the others forty five; or in that proportion. This union was of great utility to the infant settlements, for thirty five years.

237. *Charter and Union of Connecticut and New Haven.* In the war between the commonwealth of England, under Cromwell and the Dutch, in 1653, Capt. Underhill, by virtue of a commission from England, took possession of the Dutch property in Hartford, and the lands were sold. After the restoration of king Charles II, the Connecticut planters, by John Winthrop, their agent, petitioned for a charter, which was granted and dated April 14, 1662. The territory granted and confirmed to them was bounded by Narraganset Bay on the east, by Massachusetts on the north, on the south, by the sea, and extended to the south sea on the west. By this charter the set-

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tlers were incorporated into a body politic, with ample powers of government. But the charter comprehended the New Haven colony and was obtained without their consent; which occasioned great uneasiness and discontent among the New Haven planters, who remonstrated against being brought under the jurisdiction of Connecticut. But in December 1664, the general court of New Haven consented to the union, and thus was formed the late colony, now state of Connecticut; a union which, by its happy consequences, has proved how idle were the fears of the people about a consolidation.

238. *Union of Plymouth with Massachusetts.* Massachusetts and Plymouth continued to be distinct colonies, until long after the restoration of king Charles. The charter of Massachusetts was vacated by legal process in England, in the year 1685; and the colony subjected to the arbitrary government of Sir Edmund Andross, until the revolution in favor of king William, when he was siezed and sent to England, and the colony resumed their old charter government. In 1692, a new charter was obtained, confirming the privileges of the colony, and comprehending the colony of Plymouth in the same government. Since that time Plymonth has been a county of the colony, now state, of Massachusetts.

239. *Settlement of Providence.* A clergyman, named Roger Williams, who arrived with the colony of Massachusetts in 1630, became disgusted and removed to Plymouth, where he assisted the Rev. Mr. Smith, for two years. In consequence of some discontent, he left that town and went to Salem, where he was chosen to succeed Mr. Shelton. But he was charged by the magistrates with holding dangerous doctrines, his settlement was opposed and he was banished. He first went to Seekonk, now Rehoboth, and purchased a tract of land of the sachem; but as this was within the jurisdiction of Plymouth, he was desired to remove. Accordingly, in the spring of

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1635, he entered into an agreement with Miantonomy and Canonicus, sachems of the Narragansets, fixed his residence at Mooshawsic, and called the place *Providence*.

240. *Settlement of Newport.* In consequence of religious dissensions, one John Clark, and a few friends, left Boston by water, sailed round Cape Cod, and traveled to Providence, where they were entertained by Mr. Williams. Upon application to the Plymouth people, they were advised to settle at Aquetneck, now Rhode Island. In consequence, they formed an agreement among themselves for their government, purchased or obtained a grant of that isle from the natives, dated March 24, 1638, and began a settlement, on the north east end, at Pocasset, opposite to the present town of Tiverton. In the following year, 1639, a plantation was begun, on the westerly side of the isle, and called *Newport*. Patuxet was settled by William Arnold.

241. *Progress of Settlements in the Neighborhood.* In 1643, Shawmet was purchased by one Gorton and ten associates. Gorton had been banished from Rhode Island, in 1640; he went to Patuxet, was summoned before the court of Massachusetts, and refusing submission, was taken a prisoner, tried, confined all winter and then banished. Having obtained a grant of Shawmet, he went to England, obtained a confirmation of his grant, and settled the town now called Warwick. Westerly was made a township in 1669; Kingston in 1674; East Greenwich in 1677, and Conanicut in 1678 by the name of James Town.

242. *Government of Providence.* The settlers in these plantations, were first governed by a Magistrate and assistants; but in 1640 they gave the title of Governor, to the Chief Magistrate and formed an imperfect constitution. In 1643, Mr. Williams went to England and obtained a charter, dated March 14th 1644, from the commissioners of plantations, under which Rhode Island and Providence Plantations

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formed a body of laws. In 1651, an attempt was made to alter this constitution, but Williams and Clark were sent to England and prevented it. After the restoration of King Charles II, a new charter was obtained from the Crown, dated July 8th, 1663, by which the people of the colony were incorporated, with ample powers of government, and which *still* remains the basis of their government.

243. *Settlement of Maine.* The shores of that part of America, extending from the river Pascataqua, to the Bay of Fundy, had been discovered by many of the first voyagers, both English and French. The grant of the French king to de Monts, in 1603, covered the lands from the fortieth to the forty sixth degree of latitude, and of course included Maine; but the French settlements were north and east of this District. Sir John Popham and his company attempted a settlement on an isle at the mouth of the Kenebec, in 1607—8, but abandoned the country. The Plymouth Patent also in 1630 contained a grant of a tract of land on the Cobisecontee river, and sixteen miles on each side of the Kennebec, under which a settlement was made for the purpose of trade. A dispute arising between the Plymouth men and some persons belonging to Pascataqua, about the right to trade at that place, two men were killed; but the controversy was amicably settled. Under these grants however, some small settlements were made, before any goverment was established in Maine.

244. *Grant of Maine to Sir Ferdinando Gorges.* By a royal patent, dated April 3, 1639, Gorges obtained a grant of all the lands between the Pascataqua and Newichawanoc on the south and west and Sagadahoc and Kennebec on the east, extending one hundred and twenty miles north westward into the country, with the isles adjacent, and Capawac, now Martha's Vineyard. By this Charter, the territory received the title of the "Province of Maine," by which it was know till the American Revolution. Gorges

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neglected this grant, and during the civil wars in England, Massachusetts extended her claim over a part of the district. Gorges died and his grandson sold the property to the Colony of Massachusetts for fourteen hundred pounds sterling. The new Charter of 1692 placed Maine under the Massachusetts government; but in 1819 it became a state.

245. *Grant and Settlement of Maryland.* By Charter, dated June 20, 1632, Charles the first granted to Cecilius Calvert, Baron of Baltimore, in Ireland, the lands in America, between Watkins's point in the Chesapeak, and a line from that point to the ocean, on the south; and a line under the fortieth degree of latitude on the Delaware, on the north; which north line was extended to the highest source of the Potomac, and thence by that river to its mouth, and across the bay to Watkins's point—to be held by him and his heirs in fee simple. This tract was named Maryland, and settled at first by Roman Catholics from Ireland.

246. *Progress of Maryland.* The government of Maryland continued in the family of Lord Baltimore, until James the II. abdicated the throne, when the Parliament assumed the government. In 1692 the protestant religion was established by law. In 1716 the government was restored to the proprietary, and continued in his family, till the revolution; when his absence was considered as a forfeiture of his rights to the soil and jurisdiction; a convention was called, a constitution formed, and the country erected into an independent state. In 1785, Mr. Hartford, the heir of Lord Baltimore, petitioned the legislature for his estate, but without success.

247. *First Settlements on the Delaware.* It is difficult to ascertain the precise date of the first plantations on the Delaware. The Dutch and Swedes began settlements there, within a few years after the Dutch West India Company obtained a grant of New Netherlands, and between 1630 and 1637. Both

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claimed the territory, and a controversy arose between the Dutch governor of New Netherlands, and the Swedish settlers, which subsisted many years. In 1641, a number of families from New Haven began a plantation on that river; but many of them died, the next summer by sickness, and the rest were afterwards driven away by the Dutch and Swedes, who maintained their ground, and the descendants of the latter still live in Pennsylvania.

248. *State of Delaware.* The plantations on the Delaware fell within the patent to the Duke of York in 1664; or at least were considered as within its limits. After the grant of Pennsylvania to William Penn, in 1681, the Duke of York by deeds dated August 21st and 24th, 1682, granted and released to William Penn all his claims to the lands within William Penn's patent, and the lands about New Castle, within a circle of twelve miles, and south to the Hoar Kills. By an act of union and an act of settlement between Mr. Penn and the inhabitants, dated December 6, 1682, the counties, on the Delaware, were annexed to the province of Pennsylvania; they however had a separate Assembly, in which the Governor of Pennsylvania presided. At the late revolution, the three counties erected a free independent state, by the name of *Delaware*, and formed a constitution.

249. *Grant to the Duke of York.* After the English had conquered New Netherlands from the Dutch in 1664, King Charles the second, by patent dated the twelfth day of March, 1664, granted to his brother James, Duke of York, a tract of land in America, beginning at Nova Scotia and extending along the coast to Pemaquid and to the head of that river; thence to the Kennebec and northward to the river of Canada; also Long Island and Hudson's River, and all the lands from the west side of Connecticut River to the east side of Delaware Bay, with Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket. To this territory the Duke gave the name of New York. The boundaries are

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hardly to be understood; but this grant of lands before granted to others on the Connecticnt, occasioned many and warm controversies between the colonies of New York, Connecticut, New Hampshire, and Vermont, some of which lasted for more than a century.

250. *Grant of New Jersey.* The Duke of York, by deed of release, dated June 24th, 1664, sold and confirmed to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, their heirs and assigns, all that tract of land to the westward of Long Island and Manhattan, between the ocean and the Hudson on the east, and the Delaware on the west, from Cape May to the north branch of the Delaware in forty-one degrees and forty minutes of latitude, by the name of New Cesaria or *New Jersey.* Under this grant, settlements were soon begun, and Philip Carteret was appointed the first governor.

251. *Progress of New-Jersey.* The proprietors of New Jersey made grants of land, while their shares were undivided; but by deed quintipartite, dated July 1, 1676, the proprietors divided this tract of land; Sir George Carteret taking the eastern half, and one Byllinge and others, the purchasers under Lord Berkeley, taking the other half. The dividing line was agreed to be a straight line from a point on the east side of Little Egg Harbor, to the northernmost branch of the Delaware. This line was not run for many years, and thence arose controversies and riots between the claimants under different proprietors; thence also the distinction between East and West Jersey. These disputes lasted till the late revolution, when New Jersey became an independent state; and were not closed, till after the peace of 1783.

252. *Charter of Carolina.* In the year 1663, the Earl of Clarendon and seven others obtained from Charles the second, a patent of the lands of America lying between the thirty-first and thirty-sixth degrees of north latitude. Two years after, this grant was

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confirmed and the limits extended from the twenty-ninth degree to thirty-six and a half, and between these parallels, from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. Of this tract of land, the grantees were constituted absolute lords and proprietors. For the government of the country, they procured a form of constitution to be drawn up by the celebrated Locke, which appeared well on paper, but was not practicable nor convenient, and was therefore not established.

253. *Settlement of Carolina.* In 1664, the proprietors of Carolina sent Capt. Sayle to explore the coast; who, being driven by a storm among the Bahamas, examined the isle of Providence; then sailing along the American coast, he made a favorable report of the country. In consequence of his information, the proprietors solicited and obtained a patent of all the isles between the twenty second and twenty seventh degrees of north latitude, which included the Bahamas. In 1670, Capt. Sayle, with a small company, arrived at Port Royal, and begun a settlement; but he soon fell a victim to disease. In 1671, the settlers removed to the banks of Ashley river, and begun what has been called Old Charleston. In 1680, they began the present city of Charleston. The first settlers had to struggle with extreme hardships and distress, from want, from the savages and from the diseases incident to the climate.

254. *Progress of Carolina.* The new settlement was augmented, about the year 1672 or 3, by a number of the Dutch inhabitants from New-York, who left that colony, after it came into possession of the English. These formed a settlement on the southwest of Ashley river, called Jamestown; but they afterward dispersed into other parts of the country.

A few years after, a considerable number of protestants in consequence of the persecutions which followed the revocation of the edict of Nantz in 1685, left France, and settled in Carolina. In 1699, a tremendous hurricane brought such an inundation upon

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the town, that the inhabitants were obliged to seek shelter in the upper stories of their houses. A fire broke out and destroyed most of the town. The small pox raged the same year; and finally so mortal a pestilential bilious fever, that almost half the people died. These calamities came near to break up the colony.

255. *State of Carolina.* In 1728, a very hot summer was followed by a dreadful hurricane, which laid the town of Charleston under water, damaged the wharves and houses, and dashed to pieces almost every ship in the harbor. This was followed by a pestilential bilious fever which destroyed great numbers of the inhabitants, and it was hardly possible to find people to tend the sick and bury the dead.

In this year, the proprietors of Carolina, except Lord Carteret, sold all their property to the crown of England, and surrendered the government. Until this time, the governors of Carolina had been appointed by the proprietors; but from this period, the king appointed the governor and council, as in many other colonies. This form of government continued till the revolution, when Carolina became an independent state and formed a constitution.

256. *Grant to William Penn.* Charles the second, by charter dated March 4, 1681, granted to William Penn a tract of land in America, extending from a line twelve miles northward of Newcastle to the forty-third degree of latitude, and from the Delaware westward five degrees of longitude. Under this grant, he took possession of the country, purchased the soil of the natives, introduced a colony of his friends and called the tract *Pennsylvania.* He parceled out his lands at moderate rents, gave free toleration to all religious sects, and thus invited a rapid settlement of the province. The property continued in his heirs until the revolution, when the legislature assumed the government and territorial rights, made a com-

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pensation to the proprietor in money, and Pennsylvania became an independent state.

257. *Settlement of North Carolina.* The people of Virginia began the first plantations within Carolina, by gradually extending their settlements to the southward of James Town. As early as the middle of the 17th century, they had formed settlements along the Chowan river and Albemarle sound; and falling within the limits of the Carolina grant to the Earl of Clarendon and others, in 1663, the proprietors authorized Governor Berkeley to take them under his protection and government. Accordingly, one Drummond was appointed their Governor. In 1665, Sir J. Yeamans with a company from Barbadoes, formed a settlement, on Cape Fear River. These were the first settlements within North Carolina.

258. *Settlement of Georgia.* In 1732, a number of benevolent persons in England, formed a design of beginning a plantation in America, for the purpose of furnishing means of subsistence to many needy people; and obtained an act of the crown dated June 9th, making them a corporation for carrying into effect that object. In November following, one hundred and sixteen persons embarked for America under General Oglethorpe, one of the trustees. They arrived early in 1733, at Charlestown, and with the aid of Governor Johnson, repaired to the river Savannah on the bank of which they began the town of that name. The territory was called *Georgia*, from the name of the king.

259. *Progress of Georgia.* The colony was increased by further emigrations from Scotland and Germany; but numerous difficulties attended the first settlements, and the trustees weary with the complaints of the settlers and not satisfied with the condition of the colony, surrendered their charter to the crown in 1752. From this time Georgia was under a royal government, the governor being appointed by the

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king, until the revolution, when it became an independent state.

260. *Motives of the first Settlers of America.* The Spaniards who first came to America, were stimulated by the desire and expectation of finding the precious metals, gold and silver. So powerful was this passion for gold, that the first adventurers encountered every possible hardship and danger in search of it, and sacrificed millions of the wretched natives, whom they compelled to work in the mines. Very different were the motives of the settlers of New England, called *puritans*, who suffered persecution for their nonconformity, and determined to seek peace and liberty of conscience in a wilderness. A similar motive actuated the settlers of Pennsylvania, and some of the adventurers to Maryland and Carolina.

261. *Circumstances favorable to the Settlers.* One of the most remarkable events, favorable to the first settlements, was the great destruction of the Indians by a pestilential disease, resembling the bilious plague, which raged in the years 1617 and 18 among all the tribes between the Narraganset and the Penobscot, and almost depopulated the country. Many villages were stripped of all their inhabitants; and in many places, our forefathers found the bones of such as had been left unburied. This mortality weakened the stength of the natives, and probably rendered the survivors less ferocious and hostile. To this may be added the destruction of the natives by the small pox in 1633.

Another favorable circumstance was, the hostility that existed between different tribes; which, in case of a war, enabled our ancestors to make use of one tribe for the extermination of another.

QUESTIONS.

175. Who discovered North America; what land was first discovered, and in what year?

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176. From what king did Cabot receive his commission, and what did he discover in his second voyage?

177. What discoveries were made by the French and Spaniards?

178. Who discovered the river St. Lawrence, and attempted to settle Canada?

179. Who settled Acadia, now Nova Scotia?

180. Give some account of Soto's expedition.

181, 182. Who first settled Carolina, and failed?

183. What voyages and discoveries were made by Frobisher, Drake and Gilbert?

184. Who made the first grant of Virginia—to whom was it made, and when?

185, 186. Who first attempted to settle Virginia—and what was the fate of the settlers?

187. Who first attempted to settle the Elizabeth isles, and who named Martha's Vineyard?

188. When and by whom was the first grant made of Nova Scotia?

189. Who discovered Davis's Straits?

190. When was the first grant of Virginia, under which the colony was settled? What companies were formed by the first charter of Virginia?

191. When was the London Company incorporated, and by whom?

192. When was Virginia settled, and by whom? What place was first settled in Virginia?

193. When was Bermuda discovered by the English?

194. When was the third charter of Virginia granted and why?

195. Who first attempted a settlement in New England?

196. Who discovered and named the river Hudson?

197. When and by whom were Albany and New York settled?

198. When was an attempt first made to settle Newfoundland?

199. When was Bermuda first settled?

200. Who first made a chart of the coast of New England and gave it this name?

201. When and by whom was Baffin's Bay discovered?

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202. When and why were the dissenters from the English church called *Puritans?* To what countries did they flee from persecution?

203. Why were the Puritans divided into *Conformists* and *Puritans?*

204. What was the character of Queen Elizabeth—and what severities did the Puritans suffer in her reign?

205. What was the state of the church in Elizabeth's reign?

206. Why did the Puritans separate from the episcopal church? Who was their first leader? Where did they take refuge?

208. Who were the leading men of the Puritans who came to New England?

209. By whom was Plymouth in Massachusetts settled?

210. When did the Puritans leave Holland, and what disasters befell them in the voyage?

211. When did this company arrive at Plymouth, and what were their sufferings?

212. What grain furnished the pilgrims with their principal subsistence.

213. When and by whom was a patent of New England obtained? What were the limits?

214. When and to whom was granted the country which now comprehends New Hampshire?

215. When was New Hampshire settled?

216. When and to whom was Nova Scotia granted?

217. When was Mount Wollaston, now Quincy, settled?

218. When was the charter of Massachusetts granted, and who was the first governor?

219. When was Salem settled, and by whom?

220. When was Charlestown settled?

221. When was Boston settled?

222. What is the date of the Plymouth patent? How long did Plymouth continue a colony distinct from Massachusetts?

223, 224. Who, besides the English, claimed and first settled on the banks of the Connecticut river?

224. When and where did the English first erect a trading house on the Connecticut?

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225. When was Wethersfield settled?
226. When was Windsor settled?
228. When and by whom was Hartford settled?
230. When and by whom was Saybrook settled?
231. When and by whom was New Haven settled?
232. When were Milford and Guilford settled?
233. When were Fairfield and Stratford settled?
234. When was Stanford settled?
235. When was Saybrook annexed to the Connecticut colony?
236. When did the colonies confederate for their safety?
237. When were the colonies of Connecticut and New Haven united?
238. When was Plymouth united to Massachusetts?
239. When and by whom was Providence settled?
240. When and by whom was Newport settled?
241. When were Warwick, Westerly, Kingston, East Greenwich and Conanicut settled?
242. What was the government of Providence? What was the date of the first charter of Providence, and who obtained it? When was the present charter obtained?
243. Who obtained the first grant of Maine? Who first attempted a settlement in Maine, and where? Who disputed the right to trade in Maine?
244. What Englishman obtained a grant of Maine? When did Maine become a State? When and how was Maine placed under Massachusetts?
245. Who obtained a grant of Maryland, and when?
246. How long did Maryland continue in the family of Lord Baltimore? When was the protestant religion established in Maryland? When was the property restored to the family, and how long did it continue in it?
247. Who began the settlement of Delaware? When did some families from New Haven settle in Delaware?
248. How did Delaware become annexed to Pennsylvania?
249. When did the Duke of York obtain a grant of land in America? and what lands did it include?
250. How was the grant of New Jersey obtained and of whom?
251. When was the division of New Jersey?

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252. Who obtained a grant of Carolina? When was Charleston settled?

254, 255. What calamities did the settlers in Carolina suffer?

255. When did the proprietors of Carolina surrender their charter?

256. Who obtained the charter of Pennsylvania, and when? Who were the first settlers of Pennsylvania?

257. Who first settled North Carolina?

258. Who first settled Georgia; in what place, and when?

260. What were the motives of the Spaniards in settling America? What were the motives of puritans in migrating to America?

261. What circumstances were favorable to the settlers of New England?

SECTION VII.

INDIAN WARS.

262. *Massacre in Virginia.* In the year 1622, the settlers in Virginia lost three hundred and forty nine of their number by a sudden massacre. The Indians had, for some time before, lived on very familiar terms, with the English; but in the spring of that year, they secretly plotted to exterminate the colony. The direct occasion was this. A young Indian Chief, had murdered one Morgan, an Englisman, for some toys which he was carrying to sell to the Indians. The English attempted to sieze him, and he making an obstinate resistance, was killed. To revenge his death, a conspiracy was formed, and on the 22d of March, the Indians fell on the inhabitants who were unprepared and killed all they found. This compelled the people to abandon most of their

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plantations and retire to James Town. The consequence of this massacre was a furious and unrelenting war, in which the savages were slain wrthout mercy.

263. *Principal Indian Tribes in New England.* The settlers at Plymouth and Massachusetts had no trouble with the Indians in their neighborhood, for many years. But westward of the Narraganset bay, lived many powerful tribes, which had not been reduced by the malignant fever. These were the Narragansets who possessed the country between the river of that name and the Paucatuc, which territory is now a part of Rhode Island—the Pequots, a warlike nation, inhabiting the territory between Paucatuc and the Connecticut, now a part of Connecticut, by the names of Stonington and Groton—the Mohegans who resided on the west of the river Mohegan, and owned the land, now a part of New London and Norwich. Of these the Pequots were the most warlike, ferocious, and formidable to the other tribes, with whom they were often at war.

264. *Occasion of the Pequot War.* In the year 1634, the Pequots killed Capt. Stone and all his companions, being seven in number, who were bound up the Connecticut, merely for compelling two of the nation to be their guides. In 1636, Capt. Oldham was killed at Block Island, where he went to trade. Some others were killed the same year; and in April 1637 a party of Indians went up the Connecticut in canoes, and surprising a number of persons in Wethersfield as they were going into the field, killed nine and took two young women prisoners. These murders called upon the inhabitants to take measures for their safety, and it was determined to make war on the Pequots.

265. *Beginning and progress of the War.* The murder of Capt. Oldham induced Massachusetts to send ninety men under Gen. Endicott to reduce the Indians on Block Island, and then to demand of the Pequots, the murderers of Capt. Stone, and a thou-

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sand fathom of wampum, by way of satisfaction, with some of their children as hostages. In October 1636, they landed on the isle and the Indians fled, but their wigwams were all destroyed. The party then sailed to the Pequot country, where they could not effect their purposes, and after burning a number of huts, they returned. This expedition from Massachusetts gave offense to the settlers at Plymouth and Connecticut; who complained to the governor that it would exasperate the savages, without being of any use towards subduing them. But the continued murders of the Pequots, induced all the colonies, the next year, to unite in an expedition against them.

266. *Destruction of the Pequots.* In April 1637, the Connecticut people sent letters to the government of Massachusetts, expressing their dissatisfaction at the expedition of the former year; but urging a continuance of the war to a more decisive conclusion. Preparations accordingly were made in all the colonies. But Connecticut was beforehand in executing the design; for early in May, Capt. Mason with ninety men from Hartford, Wethersfield and Windsor, went down the river, being joined by Capt. Underhill at Saybrook and by Uncas, sachem of the Mohegans, the enemy of the Pequots. Sailing round to the Narraganset shore, they landed, and being joined by five hundred Indians of that tribe, who wished to see the Pequots exterminated, they marched by moonlight to the Pequot fort, and attacked it by surprise. Capt. Mason entered, set fire to the huts, and slew or took most of the Indians, amounting to six or seven hundred, with the loss of only two of his own men. Those who escaped, fled and took refuge in a swamp now in Fairfield. A body of men, being joined by the troops from Massachusetts, under Capt. Stoughton, pursued them, killed some, took others and dispersed the rest, so that the tribe became extinct.

267. *Philip's War.* In the year 1675, Philip, sachem of the Wampanoags, who lived at Mount Hope,

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in the present town of Bristol, in Rhode Island, began a war the most general and destructive ever sustained by the infant colonies. It is supposed that he was induced to undertake it, by a desire of exterminating the English. The immediate cause was this. An Indian had made a discovery of his plots, for which Philip caused him to be slain. The murderers were tried and executed by the English. Philip soon commenced his hostile attacks on the English, and by his agents, drew into the war most of the tribes in New-England.

268. *Progress of the War.* On the 18th of July, the English forces attacked the Indians at Pocasset Neck, now Tiverton, drove them into a swamp, but were obliged to retreat with the loss of fifteen men. At the close of the month, Brookfield was burnt, except one house which was defended by the people, until they had relief. After which Deerfield was burnt. Northfield was abandoned to the savages, after a number of its inhabitants had been killed; Capt. Beers, attempting to succor the town, being slain with twenty of his men. The 18th of September was a fatal day; for Capt. Lathrop, and eighty men, the flower of Essex county, while guarding some carts which were conveying corn from Deerfield to Hadley, were surprised and almost every man slain. This melancholy event was soon followed by the destruction of a considerable part of Springfield. Hadley was assaulted, but relieved by Major Treat of Connecticut.

269. *Attacks on the Narragansets.* The English had endeavored to secure the friendship of the Narragansets; and to prevent them from joining Philip, had formed a treaty with them July 15, 1675. But it was well known that they secretly aided the hostile Indians, and it was determined to reduce them by a winter expedition. For this purpose, about a thousand men under Governor Winslow, marched late in December, wading in deep snow, and attacked the fort of the enemy. The Narragansets were furnished

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with muskets, and made havoc with the assailants, especially among the officers who first entered the fort, most of whom were killed. Six captains and eighty men were killed: one hundred and fifty were wounded; and all suffered incredibly from frozen limbs and other hardships. But the success was complete; twe or three hundred of the Indians were slain, all their huts burnt, and the country ravaged.

270. *Progress of the War in* 1676. About the 10th of February a party of savages burnt Lancaster, and killed or took prisoners forty of the inhabitants, among which was the family of the minister, Mr. Rowlandson. Ten days after, they attacked Medfield early in the morning and so suddenly, that although garrisoned, they burnt nearly one half of the town, and slew many of the inhabitants. On the 26th of March, Capt. Pierce and fifty men from Plymouth were slain near Pautuxet. A great part of Marlborough was burnt on the same day, and Warwick was laid in ashes on the 17th of the same month. About forty houses and thirty barns were burnt on the 28th following in Rehoboth; and the next day Providence was attacked and thirty houses burnt. Many other places suffered in a less degree.

271. *Success of the English.* The tide of victory now began to turn. In April, Capt. Denison of Stonington collected forty seven volunteers and a party of friendly Indians, attacked the savages, took their sachem prisoner, and killed forty five without the loss of a man. This sachem called Cononchet, was the son of Miantinomo, an insolent chief of the Narragansets, and was an unrelenting enemy. He was beheaded at Stonington. Capt. Denison repeated his expeditions and killed many savages. The latter however continued to kill and destroy, wherever they came; and many towns suffered a loss of people and property. Capt. Wadsworth with fifty men, between Sudbury and Marlborough, was decoyed into a wood, and slain with almost all his men. But the English

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were very active in hunting them, and finally drove Philip to his former residence at Mount Hope, where he was killed by a shot from a friendly Indian under Capt. Church on the 12th of August 1676. This fortunate event put an end to the war.



DEATH OF KING PHILIP.

272. *Effects of this War.* The colonies in New-England, in the year 1675, contained from thirty five to forty thousand inhabitants, and their militia between seven and eight thousand men. Of these about six hundred fell in the war, besides many women and children. Twelve or thirteen towns were destroyed and many others lost a part of their bildings. Six hundred bildings, mostly dwelling houses, were consumed; many cattle killed, and a heavy debt contracted. Connecticut suffered less than the other colonies, and it is remarkable that the Mohegans, from the first settlement of the colony, remained in friendship with the English, and were very useful to them in their wars. In consequence of their fidelity,

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they have been protected by the government; their property has been secured to them and is still in possession of the tribe.

273. *War in King William's reign.* On the access of William, prince of Orange, to the throne of England, a war broke out between England and France, and as Canada then belonged to France, the French instigated the Indians to hostilities, against the colonies. A body of French and Indians from Montreal, attacked Schenectady in the night of Feb. 8, 1690, when the unsuspecting inhabitants were at rest, killed sixty and took twenty prisoners. They also set fire to the houses, killed most of the cattle and horses, and marched off with the remainder of the horses laden with plunder. Those of the people who escaped fled naked towards Albany, amidst the snow, in a severe night, twenty of whom lost their limbs by the frost. The horror and sufferings of the inhabitants were beyond the powers of description.

274. *Indian depredations in New Hampshire and Maine.* The inhabitants in the eastern part of New England had suffered greatly in Philip's war; but were severely harrassed and desolated from the year 1690 to 1698. The brave and venerable Major Waldron and twenty two others were taken by surprise and slain, and their houses burnt. The plantation at Salmon Falls in New Hampshire, was surprised and burnt on the 18th of March 1690; thirty men were slain and the women and children were made captives. The fort and settlement at Casco were destroyed in May following. Continual murders of the people, and destruction of bildings, alarms and distresses induced the inhabitants to abandon the most defenseless parts of the country and retire to garrisoned towns. Nor did these calamities cease, till the peace between France and England in 1698, when Frontenac, the French commander in Canada, ceased to instigate the savages.

275. *War in Queen Ann's reign.* In 1702 war was

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proclaimed between England and France, and the American colonies were again exposed to Indian ravages. Deerfield was surprised and burnt and most of the inhabitants carried captive, Feb. 28, 1704. New Hampshire and especially Maine was exposed to the inroads of ferocious savages, who continued every year, to alarm or massacre the people, and burn their dwellings. The peace of Utrecht, signed March 30, 1713, put an end to these calamities, and from that time the growing population of New England secured the inhabitants from similar distresses. Wonderful was the patience, fortitude, self-denial and bravery of our ancestors, in settling, cultivating and defending this goodly heritage which we enjoy!

276. *Title of our ancestors to the soil of this country.* The inhabitants which our fathers found in America, though savage tribes, which subsisted principally by hunting and fishing, were considered as the rightful owners of the soil, and treated as such. Although the English first landed on their territory without their consent, yet they were careful to acquire a just title to the lands by fair purchase from the possessors. Our ancestors bought almost all the lands for a valuable consideration, though generally small; and the deeds are registered among the records of the colonies. Had it not been for the French in Canada, who during the wars between England and France, instigated the savages to seek the blood and property of the English, it is probable our forefathers would have escaped most of the wars with the Indians, and their distressing consequences. The power of the French in Canada to injure the colonies, was happily destroyed by the reduction of Quebec by the forces under General Wolf in 1758, and the conquest of the whole province of Canada.

277. *Division among the different tribes.* When this country was first planted, the Indians, like other nations, were often at war among themselves. The Pequots were terrible to their neighbors; and the Mo-

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hegans and Narragansets joyfully assisted the English to exterminate them. In Philip's war, the English were assisted also by a number of friendly Indians. The five nations west of Albany were very useful in aiding the settlers to check the incursions of the Canada tribes under French influence. The first settlements in Carolina, which might have been easily destroyed, were secured and left to thrive, by means of a bloody war between the two neighboring tribes, which nearly extinguished both. While we may rejoice at such divisions which were favorable to our ancestors, in the infant state of the colonies, yet we are to learn from them the great danger to a people from disunion. Nothing renders the conquest of a country so easy, as disunion and controversies among the inhabitants.

278. *War against the Tuscaroras.* In the year 1712, the Tuscaroras, a considerable nation of Indians on the frontiers of North Carolina, with some other tribes, made war on the infant settlements in that colony and threatened it with extirpation. Their first inroad was kept so secret, that they fell on the unsuspecting planters by surprise, killing all without mercy. About Roanoke one hundred and thirty seven persons were slain in one night, among whom were most of the Germans who had then lately arrived. Governor Craven of South Carolina, as soon as he heard of this plot, sent Col. Barnwell against the savages at the head of six hundred men, and a body of Indians of other tribes. Marching through a wilderness, Col. Barnwell surrounded the Indians in their own town, slew many of them and compelled the remainder to ask for peace. Such of the Tuscaroras as escaped, abandoned their country, settled among the Five Nations; and added a sixth tribe, so that they afterwards were called the *Six* Nations.

279. *Conspiracy of the Yamasees.* The southern border of South Carolina, along the Savannah was inhabited by a numerous and powerful tribe of Indians,

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called Yamasees. These lived, for many years, in friendship with the Carolinians; but in 1715, instigated, it was believed, by the Spaniards of Florida, they formed a general conspiracy of all the neighboring tribes, to destroy the English settlements. Not less than six or seven thousand warriors of the Congarees, Catawbas, Cherokees, Yamasees, and other tribes were engaged in this plot. On the 15th of April, at day break, they began their horrid work of massacre and torture, and ninety persons who went to Pocotaglio, one of their towns, to trade, or were in the neighboring plantations, fell victims to the first attack. The Indians approached within a few miles of Charleston, destroying all the people who had not escaped to that town.

280. *Defeat of the Indians.* At that time Charleston could muster but twelve hundred men fit to bear arms; but Governor Craven took vigorous measures; laying an embargo, proclaiming martial law, and procuring an act of assembly, authorizing him to impress men, stores and ammunition, he marched against the savages, and found the main body of them in their great camp, at a place called the Saltcatchers. There a sharp and bloody battle ensued, but the Carolinians repulsed the barbarians, and closely pursuing them, drove them beyond the Savannah river, where they were received by the Spaniards. The colony being thus delivered from most imminent danger, the troops returned and were received with unbounded joy. The savages remained vindictive and frequently made incursions into the English plantations, exercising their usual barbarities; but never was Carolina again exposed to equal danger.

QUESTIONS.

262. When was the massacre in Virginia, and what the cause?

263. Which were the most formidable tribes of Indians in New England?

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264. What was the occasion of the war with the Pequots?

265. Who first made war on the Pequots?

266. Who destroyed the Pequots, and when?

267. When did Philip's war commence? What was the immediate cause?

268. What towns were burnt by the Indians? Where was Capt. Lathrop's company destroyed?

269. Who attacked the Narragansets; when was the attack made and what was the event?

270. What towns were burnt in 1676?

271. What put an end to this war?

272. What were the losses of the English in Philip's war?

273. When and in what war was Schenectady destroyed?

274. What were the calamities of New Hampshire and Maine in the Indian wars?

275. When was Deerfield burnt?

276. What title did our ancestors obtain to their lands? Who instigated the savages to make war upon the English?

278. When was the war with the Tuscaroras? Who defeated them, and what was the event?

279. When did the Yamasees conspire against the English?

280. Who defeated the Indians?

SECTION VIII.

POLITICAL EVENTS.

281. *Political History of the Colonies.* The charters granted to the first planters of New England, gave them ample powers of government. The freemen elected their own governors,' councils and representatives; by whom all laws were enacted, subject however to be abrogated by the king and coun-

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cil, if found repugnant to the laws of England. But the numerous emigrations to America soon alarmed the English government, and repeated orders were issued by the king to restrain such emigrations. Many jealousies and controversies also arose among those concerned in the plantations, and numerous complaints were made of the disorderly conduct of the settlers, their encroachment on other patents, and their arbitrary proceedings. The principal author of these complaints against the Massachusetts colony was John Mason. In 1634, the king and council had been induced, by these complaints, to issue an order requiring the colony to send their charter to England. On consultation, the governor and magistrates gave answer that this could not be done, without the direction of the general court, which was to be held in September following.

282. *Surrender of the Patent of the Plymouth Company.* The council of Plymouth, being dissatisfied with the proceedings of some of the company, and especially with the Massachusetts colony, which as they alledged, had extended their jurisdiction too far, and rendered themselves independent of the company, resigned their grant to the crown by an act dated June 11, 1635. In 1636 the king issued an order of process against Massachusetts, demanding the authority by which the colony exercised the powers of government, and though not served on any person in New England, judgment was rendered against the colony. In 1638, April 8, the king and council sent an express order that the colony should deliver up their patent. This was not obeyed, but an answer returned with a petition, stating that the process had not been served on them; that they had settled under the authority of their patent; and if obliged to resign it, they must remove to some other place and the country would fall into the hands of the Dutch or French. No answer was returned, and the troubles in England prevented a further demand.

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283. *Plan of a General Government.* Gorges and Mason the enemies of the Massachusetts colony, were the principal instruments in procuring the surrender of the Plymouth patent. Their plan was to procure a surrender of all the patents, and form the whole northern part of America into twelve provinces, with a general governor over the whole. This plan was nearly matured in the year 1635; but by the death of Mason, the winter following, it was frustrated. The colonies however were held in a state of alarm, for many years, apprehending a loss of their patents, and a subjection to the arbitrary proceedings of the king and the high commission court.

284. *Dissolution of the Charter of Massachusetts.* The controversies between the heirs of of Gorges and Mason, and the Massachusetts colony, respecting the boundaries of their patents, gave rise to many complaints against the colony; and in 1676, Edward Randolph was sent from England, by the king's authority, to inquire into the state of the colonies and the grounds of complaint. The colony sent agents to England; the parties were heard; Gorges was secured in his claim to Maine, and the colony purchased his property. The claims of Mason were also adjusted. But Randolph made continual complaints against the colony for violating the laws of trade, coining money and the like. The colony appointed agents to make answer to these complaints; but without success. The king and council were prejudiced against the colony, and in 1683 issued an order, demanding that the colony should answer to the charges against them. After deliberation, the representatives declined to appear and make defense. Of course in 1685, judgment was rendered against the colony, and their charter was declared to be vacated.

285. *Proceedings against the other Colonies.* Similar orders were issued against other colonies. Rhode Island assembly submitted to his majesty's pleasure, and agreed to surrender their charter which was ac-

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cepted in 1684. Plymouth, expecting to be compelled to resign their patent, sent a copy of it to the king, with an address full of expressions of loyalty, and praying for the grant of a charter. No further proceedings were had against Plymouth. In July 1685, process was issued by the king and council against Connecticut. In July 1686, the assembly of the colony agreed upon an address to his majesty, in which they besought him to recall the writ against them, entreated his pardon for any faults in their government, and requested the continuance of the charter.

286. *Singular Preservation of the Charter of Connecticut.* When the writ of quo warranto arrived, Connecticut sent Mr. Whiting as an agent to negotiate for the preservation of their colonial charter and rights. But in vain; for the king and council had determined to vacate all the charters, and unite the colonies to the crown. under a governor of royal appointment. Sir Edmund Andross was appointed the first governor general over New England and arrived at Boston in December 1686. Soon after his arrival he wrote to Connecticut to resign their charter; but without success. In October 1687, while the assembly was in session, Governor Andross arrived at Hartford with a company of troops, and demanded a surrender of the charter. One evening while the principal officers of government were debating with Andross on the subject, and many people were collected, a garment was suddenly thrown over the candles, by which they were extinguished, and the charter which lay on the table was seized by Mr. Wadsworth of Hartford, conveyed away and secreted within a large hollow oak tree, standing before the house of Mr. Wyllys. This tree is still living.

287. *Subsequent proceedings in Connecticut and Massachusetts.* The charter was secured, but Gov. Andross proceeded to take formal possession of the government of Connecticut and annexed it to Mas-

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sachusetts; appointing officers civil and military, and making most flattering protestations of his good intentions. But he soon threw off the mask, and exercised arbitrary power, in the most unbounded manner. The weight of his despotism fell, with most severity, on Massachusetts and Plymouth. Happily the reign of tyranny was of short duration; for the arbitrary proceedings of his royal master, king James, had rendered him so odious in England, that he was obliged to flee from the kingdom. William, prince of Orange, who was invited to the throne of England, landed there in November 1688, and delivered the nation. Upon the first news of this revolution, the inhabitants of Boston and the neighboring towns, seized the castle and arrested Governor Andross. This was on the 18th of April 1689. As soon as William and Mary were proclaimed king and queen, the colonies resumed their charter governments, by authority from the crown, and Andross embarked for England.

288. *State of the Colonies after the Revolution.* Connecticut obtained from the most able lawyers in England, an opinion that the colony not having surrendered the charter under seal, and no judgment being entered on record, the charter was not invalidated; the former government was therefore re-established. But the charter of Massachusetts having been vacated, the king granted a new charter, in which the right of appointing the governor and council was vested in the crown. Sir William Phips was appointed the first governor, and arrived with the new charter in May 1692. Plymouth urged for a separate charter, but could not obtain one; and it was a question for some time, whether it should be annexed to New-York or to Massachusetts. Finally it was annexed to the latter.

289. *Another attempt against the Colonies by Gov. Dudley.* Near the close of the reign of king William Governor Dudley had formed a new design of pro-

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curing all the charters in America to be vacated and the colonies to be united to the crown. Early in the reign of queen Ann, who ascended the throne in 1702, a bill for this purpose was actually laid before parliament. The reasons alledged for the measure were, that the colonies violated the laws of trade, defrauded the revenue, harbored pirates and the like. Sir Henry Ashurst, the agent of Connecticut, remonstrated against the measure, contradicted the charges against the colonies, and represented that such a plan would be injurious to their rights, and ruinous to their prosperity. Happily the bill was not passed, and all the attempts of Dudley were frustrated.

290. *Controversies of the New England Colonies with the Dutch.* In a few years after the English came to America, a contest arose between them and the Dutch at Manhattan, respecting the lands on the Connecticut. Both parties were pleased with the fertility of the lands, both claimed the soil, and both intended to gain possession of it. But the Dutch had purchased a few acres of land and planted a fort on it in 1633, before the English had attempted a plantation. The Plymouth men however arrived and bilt a house in a week or two after the Dutch had got possession. Notwithstanding the enmity between the English and Dutch, the latter were suffered to keep possession, for more than twenty years, when a war breaking out, the Dutch fort was taken, and the lands confiscated, in 1654.

291. *Disputes relating to Long Island and Delaware.* About the year 1640, some of the Connecticut and New Haven planters, purchased large tracts of land on Long Island, and began settlements. The New Haven colony also made settlements on the Delaware. The Dutch wishing to monopolize the trade, determined to restrain the English from extending their settlements, and in 1642 invaded and broke up the plantations on Long Island and the Delaware. The English complained also that the Dutch sold arms and

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amunition to the Indians; and for many years mutual accusations passed between the parties. In 1650, Mr. Stuyvesent, the Dutch governor went to Hartford, being invited to an amicable agreement with the commissioners of the colonies. He there made claim to the lands on the west of the Connecticut by grant and by purchase from the natives and demanded a surrender of them. The commissioners replied and manifested their title by charter, purchase and possession.

292. *Result of the conference.* After much altercation, the parties agreed to submit their claims and differences to arbitrators, who on the 19th of Sept. 1650, came to the following determination. That as most of the complaints and subjects of dispute arose under the preceding governor of Manhattan, Mr. Kieft, they would not come to a full conclusion, until Mr. Stuyvesant had made a representation of the facts to the company in Holland under whom he acted. With respect to the claims of New Haven and the Dutch to the land on the Delaware, then called South River, they declined a decision for want of evidence on the part of the Dutch. But they determined that the boundary between the English and Dutch, on Long Island, should be a strait line across the isle from the westermost part of Oyster Bay; and on the main land, a line running from the west side of Greenwich Bay, northerly twenty miles into the country, provided it should not come within ten miles of the Hudson. The Dutch were permitted to hold their fort and lands in Hartford, and the remainder of the lands on both sides of the Connecticut, was adjudged to the English.

293. *Subsequent disputes with the Dutch.* After this award, the New Haven people attempted again to establish themselves on the Delaware; but they were prevented by the Dutch, who arrested the messengers sent to give notice of this resolution to the governor. The New Haven people petitioned the

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commissioners of the United Colonies to redress their injuries and maintain their rights. The commissioners remonstrated to the Dutch governor, but without success. In 1653, the commissioners held an extraordinary meeting, on account of information that the Dutch had formed a plot against the English, and were instigating the Indians to commit hostilities. The evidence of such a plot convinced all the commissioners, except those of Massachusetts, who opposed a war with the Dutch. Stuyvesant denied the plot and offered to prove his innocence. But no satisfaction was given, and men were raised for an expedition against the Dutch. The next spring, in 1654, orders were received from Cromwell to treat the Dutch as enemies, and a fleet was sent with forces to act against them in America. But the defeat of the Dutch fleet under Admiral Tromp in Europe, put an end to the war, and little was done in America, except the taking of the Dutch fort at Hartford.

294. *Disputes after Connecticut obtained a Charter.* After the restoration of the royal government in England, in 1660, Connecticut obtained a charter which covered the colony of New Haven and extended her limits to the South Sea. This extension of her claims westward on Long Island and in West Chester, in consequence of this charter, alarmed Gov. Stuyvesant, who sent agents to Connecticut in 1663, to treat with the legislature on the subject. The assembly resolved, for the sake of peace, to forbear the exercise of authority on the west end of Long Island, provided the Dutch should not molest the English plantations, which petitioned to be under the government of Connectieut, and which had been received. About the same time the assembly authorized Thos. Pell to purchase from the Indians the land between West Chester and the Hudson, as far south as Haerlem Creek. The patent to the Duke of York of the Dutch possessions in America, granted March 12, 1664, was followed by an armament under Col.

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Nichols, which reduced them all to subjection to the crown of England, and released the colonies from further apprehensions from the Dutch.

295. *Boundaries between Connecticut and New York.* After Col. Nichols had subdued New Netherlands, and given it the present name, *New York*, he and his associates, appointed by the crown, met with the agents appointed by Connecticut, and on the 5th of December, 1664, determined the boundary of their respective jurisdictions to be, a line beginning on the east side of Maroneck river or creek, at the place where the salt water meets the fresh, at high water, and thence north northwest to the line of Massachusetts. They determined also the whole of Long Island to be under the jurisdiction of the Duke of York, according to his charter; so that the New England colonies lost the possession of that isle.

296. *Proceedings after the war with the Dutch.* In March 1672, King Charles declared war against the States of Holland, and in the following summer, a Dutch force arrived at New York and took possession of it. The inhabitants of Delaware submitted to the Dutch, but the colony of Connecticut took measures of defense, and opposed the demands of the Dutch who required the people of Long Island to submit to their government, and take an oath of allegiance to the States of Holland. The Dutch attempted to subdue the isle and some of the western towns of the colony, but were repelled. In February 1674, peace took place between the powers at war; by which New York was restored to the English. To prevent all dispute, about his title, the Duke of York took a new patent of his territories in America, dated June 29, 1674, and committed the government of them to Sir Edmond Andross.

297. *Andross' proceedings towards Connecticut.* Sir Edmond, by virtue of the patent to the Duke of York, claimed the land on the west side of the Connecticut, to the prejudice of the Connecticut charter, and in

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violation of the agreement of 1664. To enforce his claims, he attempted in 1675 to take the fort at Saybrook; and after making a show of his force, he requested a conference, which was granted. Attempting to read his commission and the Duke's patent, Capt. Bull, who commanded the fort, forbad the reading, and directed his clerk to read the protest of Connecticut against his proceedings. At this manly conduct Sir Edmond was so much pleased that on hearing the officer's name to be *Bull*, he declared his "horns ought to be tipped with silver." Finding the colony resolute, he gave up his design and sailed to Long Island.

298. *Settlement of the line between Connecticut and New York.* In 1683, Col. Dungan arrived at New York, in character of governor. In November, the General Court of Connecticut appointed a committee to congratulate him on his arrival, and settle the boundary between the two governments. On the 28th of November of the same year, the agents came to an agreement, that the line of partition should begin at Byram river, at a point called Lyon's point, where the river falls into the sound, and run northerly at not less than twenty miles distance from the Hudson, to the south line of Massachusetts. This agreement was confirmed by the legislature of Connecticut in May 1684, and the lines were in part run and ratified February 24, 1685, by governor Dungan and governor Treat. This agreement was confirmed by King William, March 28, 1700. Further progress was made in running the line in 1731, when the lines were established, as they now exist. In this settlement New York ceded to Connecticut a tract of land on the sound, called Greenwich, which was settled by English people who chose to be annexed to Connecticut; and in return, Connecticut ceded to New York sixty thousand acres of much better land, now called the Oblong.

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299. *Line between Massachusetts and Connecticut.* The south line of Massachusetts, according to charter runs west from a point three miles south of the most southerly branch of Charles River and every part of it; and the north line of Connecticut is the south line of Massachusetts. When Mr. Pynchon settled Springfield, and the first plantations were made in Connecticut, in 1635 it was not known whether the territory would fall within the limits of Massachusetts or not. But Mr. Pynchon at first considered himself as belonging to the jurisdiction of the Connecticut plantations. In 1642, Massachusetts employed two surveyors, Woodward and Saffery, to run the line between the colonies. These pretended to ascertain the south line on Charles River and then sailing round and going up the Connecticut, they attempted to fix the line there, in the same latitude. But either through inattention or the use of bad instruments, they determined the line to fall in Windsor, many miles south of the true line.

300. *Measures taken for ascertaining the boundary.* Connecticut was dissatisfied with the determination of Woodward and Saffery, and made repeated proposals to Massachusetts for a mutual adjustment of the controversy, which were ineffectual. In 1694, a committee appointed by Connecticut, run the line and found the former survey very erroneous. In this situation, the inhabitants of Suffield and Enfield, who settled under the claims and jurisdiction of Massachusetts, continued to encroach upon Windsor and Simsbury, which excited warm animosities. In the year 1700, further attempts were made to procure an amicable settlement of the dispute; the line was run by commissioners of both colonies, in 1702, and found to fall far north of the former line; but Massachusetts disagreed to their report. In 1708, Connecticut appointed commissioners with full powers to run the line and establish the boundary; and resolved that unless

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Massachusetts would unite to complete the business, they would apply to the crown.

301. *Settlement of the boundary between Massachusetts and Connecticut.* Massachusetts did not agree at once to the proposal of Connecticut; but in 1713, commissioners were appointed on the part of both colonies, who came to an agreement on the 13th of July. On running the line, it was found to fall north of Enfield, Suffield and Woodstock, which of course came within the jurisdiction of Connecticut. As an equivalent for the land which had been taken from Connecticut by encroachments, Massachusetts granted a tract of land in the western part of that colony, which, in 1716, was sold for two thousand two hundred and seventy four dollars, which sum was applied to the use of Yale College. This agreement however was not considered as conclusive and satisfactory; nor was the boundary between the two states definitively settled till May 1804.

302. *Rhode Island.* By the original patent of Connecticut, granted by the Earl of Warwick to Lord Say and others, dated March 19th, 1631, the eastern limit of the colony was Narraganset River. In the charter of 1662, the same river was made the eastern boundary of the colony. In March 1643, the planters at Providence and Newport obtained from the Earl of Warwick and the commissioners of plantations, a charter of incorporation, with powers of government; but the boundaries of their jurisdiction were not defined. In the following year, some of the planters applied to the commissioners of the United Colonies, to be received under the government of one of the colonies, and received for answer that if the major part of the landholders would, without reservation submit, either Massachusetts or Plymouth might receive them.

303 *Determinaiton of the Colonies concerning Rhode Island.* At a meeting of the commissioners of the colonies held at Plymouth in Sept. 1648, an appli-

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cation was received from the Rhode Islanders to be received into the confederacy; but the commissioners replied, that upon perusal of the Plymouth patent, they found Rhode Island to be within that patent, which they had no right to abridge; and that great confusions and disturbance existed among the inhabitants; yet if they would acknowledge themselves within the Jurisdiction of Plymouth, they would be received into the union and protected. But they never consented, and maintained a distinct civil government.

304 *Extension of the bounds of Providence Plantations.* The commissioners appointed by Charles 2d to settle disputes between the colonies, at the head of whom was Col. Nicholas, determined that as the Narragansets had, in 1644, submitted to become subjects of the crown of England, their country also belonged to the crown. They ordered the purchasers to remove from the lands, and arbitrarily extended the bounds of the province to Paucatuc river. In 1661, the United Colonies remonstrated with the government of Rhode Island, against the intrusions of their people upon lands near Paucatuc and the Pequot country, which had been conquered by the joint arms of Massachusetts and Connecticut, and had been located and disposed of. Frequent dispute arose between Connecticut and Rhode Island.

305. *Charter Limits of Rhode Island.* In the charter granted to Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, by Charles 2d, dated July 8, 1663, the colony was bounded west on Paucatuc river, north on Massachusetts, and east by the west line of Plymouth colony, along the east side of Seekonk river to Patucket falls. This charter included the lands to the Narraganset river, which had been included in the old patent of Connecticut in 1632. and which, the king had, the year before, confirmed by charter to Connecticut. This occasioned great uneasiness and controversies.—Rhode Island pleaded, in justification,

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an agreement between Mr. Winthrop and Mr. Clark in England, dated March 7th, 1663, by which Mr. Winthrop as agent for Connecticut, conented that Paucatuc should be the boundary between the colonies.

306 *Conquest of the Narragansets and the final Settlement of the Boundary.* In 1676, the forces of the United colonies subdued the Narragansets, and took possesion of their couutry. The Rhode Islanders had not assisted in the conquest, and Connecticut, rejecting the agreement of Mr. Winthrop, as void for want of authority, determined to settle and govern the country. In consequence of these disputes, commissioners were appointed by king Charles, April 7th, 1683, to inquire into the claims of the parties. On the 20th of October they reported that the Narraganset country of right belonged to Connecticut. This report was not confirmed by the king and the controversy continued, many years, when a spirit of conciliation induced Connecticut to appoint a committee to make an amicable settlement of the controversy. On the 12th of May 1702, the agents of the two colonies agreed and confirmed the line between them, to be Paucatuc river, from the sea to the mouth of Ashaway; thence a straight line to the south west corner of Warwick; and thence a north line to Massachusetts. This line was run in 1728 and remains the boundary between the states of Connecticut and Rhode Island.

307. *Eastern Boundary between Massachusetts and Rhode Island.* The colony of Rhode Island was bounded by charter on the west line of Plymouth. After Plymouth was anexed to Massachustts in 1692, disputes arose concernig the boundary between that colony and Rhode Island, which were not finally terminated till about the year 1740, when commissioners were appointed to settle the boundary. To the surprise of Massachusetts, the line was determined to be east of Bristol, Tiverton and several other towns

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which had always been considered as within Plymouth or Massachusetts, but which were now annexed to Rhode Island. Massachusetts appealed to the crown, but without effect. The line was established and now remains the boundary between the two states.

308. *Government of New Hampshire.* The first plantations on the Pascataqua were begun under grants to Mason and Gorges, before the date of the Massachusetts charter. Other settlements were made under a purchase from the Indians. The planters, having no form or powers of government from the crown, united and formed regulations for their government, and for some time, their govenor was appointed by the proprietors in England. In 1641, they formally submitted to the government of Massachusetts, and cotinued subject to it, until the year 1675, when the heirs of Mason and Gorges revived their claims, which had been suffered to lie dormant, and demanded their property and right of government. Upon a hearing of the parties, it was determined by the judges of England, that the towns on the Pascataqua were not within the bounds of Massachusetts. Accordingly on the 18th of September 1679, a commission passed the great seal, erecting New Hampshire into a seperate and royal government.

309. *Boundaries between Massachusetts and New Hampshire.* For many years after this separation, a controversy subsisted between those colonies, relative to their respective boundaries. At length, in 1737, commissioners duly appointed, having heard the parties and considered their claims, made a report which was disagreeable to both. The parties appeal to the king and council, who, in 1739, decided that the line between the colonies on the south of New Hampshire, should run three miles north of the Merrimac, from the sea to a point due north of Pautucket falls; then a due west course to his majesty's other governments. On the north, a line along the middle of Pascataqua and the Salmon Falls river, to the far-

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thest head of the same, extending one hundred and twenty miles from Pascataqua harbor, was estabilised as the boundary between New Hampshire and Maine. These are the present boundaries.

310. *Vermont.* That tract of land which lies on the west side of Connecticut river, between the north line of Massachusetts and Canada, remained a wilderness, till about the year 1750. The charters and grants of New Hampshire did not extend to the Connecticut; but after the settlement of the line between that colony and Massachusetts in 1739, a line which was run in 1741, the colony of New Hampshire began to extend her claims westward as far as the east line of New York, which is twenty miles from the Hudson. Fort Dummer had been bilt in 1724, for a protection against the savages; it was supposed at that time to be in Massachusetts, but on running the line, it fell to the north of that colony, and New Hampshire considered it as within her jurisdiction. The place is now in the town of Brattleborough, in Vermont.

311. *First locations in Vermont.* In 1749, Benning Wentworth, governor of New Hampshire, granted a township on the west, and adjoining to the colony of New York, which he called Bennington. This is the oldest town in that state. For many years he continued to grant townships on the west side of the Connecticut, and the territory thus acquired the name of New Hampshire grants. Under these grants settlements were made with surprising rapidity; especially after the conquest of Canada in 1760. About this time, New York began to assert her claim to this tract of land, under the clause of the grant to the Duke of York, which specified the lands on the *west side of the Connecticut*; and in 1763, Governor Colden issued a proclamation asserting that claim. In 1764, the governor of New Hampshire issued a pro-

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clamation, asserting the claims of that colony to the same territory.

312. *Progress of the controversy.* The government of New York applied to the crown, and in 1764 an order was obtained, in which his majesty declared the Connecticut to be the boundary between New Hampshire and New York, which was considered by New York, as a decision that the territory belonged to that colony. In consequence of which, the government of New York proceeded to divide the territory into counties, erect courts and grant lands. The grants made by New Hampshire, were declared to be invalid, and the grantees were required to surrender them and take new grants under New York. Actions of ejectment were brought and judgmedt recovered against the occupants. Some of the inhabitants complied with the requisitions; and many refused. Controversies succeeded which ended in opposition to the sherif of Albany, confusion and riots. In 1767, the agents of the settlers procured an order of the king to put a stop to the proceedings of New York.

313. *Violent measures of New York.* In 1772, Governor Tryon of New York made some attempts to effect an amicable adjustment of this controversy; but the claims of the parties could not be reconciled. In 1774, the legislature of New York passed an act, making it felony in any of the settlers to refuse to surrender himself to the orders of the governor and council, and a reward was offered for apprehending seven of the principal settlers. The consequence was a combination on the part of the settlers, to resist the claims of New York by force. An attempt was made in concert with Col. Skeen, to procure this territory to be erected into a separate royal government; but the revolutionary war in 1775, changed the aspect of affairs. The session of the court at Westminster was opposed by force; one man was killed by the military, in attempting to disperse the insurgents;

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and a committee of the inhabitants resolved it to be the duty of the settlers to renounce and resist the government of New York, until some security could be obtained for their lives and safety.

314. *Proceedings of the settlers during the War.* In autumn 1775, some persons attended upon the congress in Philadelphia, to obtain advice; but nothing could be obtained, except the opinions of individuals, that it was prudent to associate and form temporary regulations. In January 1776, a convention at Dorset prepared and transmitted a memorial to congress, manifesting their readiness to bear a full proportion of the burdens of the war, but not to be considered as belonging to New York. Another convention in July 1776, entered into an association for the defense of their rights, and in September, they resolved to take measures for erecting their territory into an independent state. A general convention was called and met in January 1777, at Westminster. On the 16th of that month, it was resolved that the "district of territory, called New Hampshire grants, of right ought to be, and is hereby declared to be an independent state." To this territory was given the name of *Vermont,* which signifies *green mountain,* from the mountains of that name, running through the state.

315. *Proceedings of Congress in regard to Vermont.* No sooner was a government and state formed in this territory, than an application was made to congress by the convention, to be received into the confederacy as an independent state. To this measure, the state of New York made a most formidable opposition; and to prevent a rupture, or dangerous altercations with New York, congress was obliged to decline receiving Vermont into the Union, and avoid any act that should be construed into an acknowledgment of the independence of that state. New Hampshire had long before ceased to exercise jurisdiction over the territory and had withdrawn all claims to the property.

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316. *Extension of Vermont Jurisdiction.* By the original grants to Mason, under which New Hampshire was settled, the colony could not claim more than sixty miles of territory from the mouth of the Pascataqua. But several towns west of that line were settled and governed by New Hampshire by common consent. In 1778, sixteen of the towns on the east of the Connecticut, and not within the limits of the grants to Mason, petitioned to be united with Vermont. This question was referred to the people, and the assembly in June 1778, voted to receive them into the jurisdiction of Vermont. This measure alarmed New Hampshire, and produced warm remonstrances to Vermont, and to congress. That body was much displeased, and the next assembly in Vermont voted not to erect the sixteen towns into a county, which was a virtual disavowal of their former proceedings.

317. *Claims to Vermont.* The inhabitants of the sixteen discarded towns, and some of the towns on the west of the Connecticut, made a feeble attempt to erect another state, whose center and seat of government should be on the river; but without success. To prevent such confusion and altercation, Vermont, in February 1779, voted to dissolve the union with the sixteen towns. Soon after this step, New Hampshire voted to assert her claims to the whole territory, as far as the bounds of New York, and New York asserted *her* claim also to the whole territory, as far as the Connecticut. Massachusetts also set up a claim to a part of the same lands. In this state of things, the governor of New York exercised acts of authority within Vermont, and every thing wore the appearance of an appeal to arms. Some military officers commissioned by the governor of New York, were taken prisoners by Col. Allen of Vermont; but upon the governor's application to congress, they were liberated.

318. *Proceedings of Congress on that occasion.*

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Congress directed their commissioners, appointed for the purpose, to inquire into the facts relative to these controversies; but this inquiry produced no reconciliation. Congress therefore, in September 1779, recommended to the parties concerned, to pass laws authorizing congress to hear and determine their differences. New York and New Hampshire complied; but Vermont declined it, as did Massachusetts. The government of Vermont published an appeal, in which it was maintained that congress ought not to intermeddle with the police and government of that state, or arbitrate upon its rights. In June 1780, congress resolved that the proceedings of Vermont were highly unwarrantable, and subversive of the peace and welfare of the United States. In September, congress began to hear evidence of the claims of the states, to the territory of Vermont, but the business was left unfinished.

319. *Extension of the jurisdiction of Vermont.* Vermont being pressed by its opposers, determined to enlarge the limits and augment the strength of the state. By means of circular letters, a convention was called of delegates from towns on the east side of the river. *Forty three* towns agreed to unite with Vermont, and in February 1781, their desire was notified to the assembly of Vermont at Windsor, Upon which the assembly on the 14th of that month, resolved to claim the jurisdiction of all the territory in New Hampshire, west of the Mason line. On the 22d the articles of union were ratified. Some persons within the limits of New York, having intimated a desire to be united with Vermont, for protection, the assembly on the 14th of February, resolved to extend their claims of jurisdiction to the river Hudson.

320. *Negociations of Vermont with the British Commander.* Not having been able, by repeated applications, to procure an admission into the union of the states. the leaders in Vermont adopted the plan of exciting the jealousy of congress, by entering into

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a negotiation with the British commanders in New York and Canada; and by making it believed, that, if not received into the union, the state would put itself under the protection of the British government. This negotiation was attended with this good effect; it amused the British with the hope of detaching that state from the American confederacy, and induced them to suspend hostilities on its frontiers. This farce was continued, with great address about three years, until the peace of 1783.

321. *Measures which led to the admission of Vermont into the Union.* On the 7th of August 1781, congress resolved to appoint a committee of five to confer with the agents of the several contending states, respecting the claims of Vermont to independence. On the 20th of the same month, they resolved it to be a preliminary to the recognition of Vermont as an independent state, that all its claims east of the Connecticut, and within twenty miles of the Hudson, should be relinquished. In October, these resolutions were considered by the assembly of Vermont, but it was determined not to comply with the conditions. In this situation of affairs, New Hampshire and New York prepared to repel the usurpations of Vermont upon their territory, with force of arms. Fortunately, no blood was shed, and in January 1782, General Washington interposed his influence, and like a guardian angel, persuading the rulers of Vermont to recede from their unwarrantable claims, pointed out to them the way to safety. On the 28th of February 1782, the assembly of Vermont withdrew their claims within their original limits, the Connecticut on the east and New York line on the west.

322. *New sources of altercation.* In the county of Windham, were some persons attached to the government of New York, who opposed the raising and paying of men for protecting the frontiers of Vermont and who attempted to exercise the powers of government under authority from the government of New

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York. The sherif, aided by the military, was sent to protect the courts. Five of the obnoxious characters were banished and others fined. New York appealed to congress, who, in December 1782, resolved that the proceedings of Vermont were derogatory to the authority of the United States, and dangerous to the confederacy. They also required Vermont to indemnify the persons who had suffered damages from their proceedings. This resolution had no effect, but to call forth a bold and spirited remonstrance from the governor and council of Vermont, and another from the assembly, disputing the right of congress to intermeddle with the government of the state, and announcing their determination to maintain independence.

323. *Final admission of Vermont into the Union.* After the peace of 1783, Vermont, released from the fear of an enemy, was less solicitous about joining the confederacy of states. In this condition, it continued a separate state, managing its own concerns, until the year 1789. But after the organization of the general government over the states, in that year, New York ceased to oppose the independence of Vermont, and in July 1789, appointed commissioners to settle the controversy. In October, Vermont appointed commissioners for the same purpose. After meeting and deliberating, the parties agreed; and New York consented that Vermont should be admitted into the union, on condition of passing an act to pay to New York thirty thousand dollars, as a compensation for lands in Vermont claimed by citizens of New York. In consequence of this agreement, a convention was called at Bennington. In January 1791, a resolution was passed for joining the confederacy, and agents were appointed by the assembly to repair to Philadelphia to negotiate the union. On the 18th of February 1791, the business was completed, and Vermont became a member of the confederacy.

324. *Controversy between Connecticut and Pennsyl-*

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vania. Connnecticut, by her charter, extended from the Narraganset river on the east to the South Sea on the west, excepting such lands as were then occupied by prior settlers. This charter was granted in 1662. In 1681 William Penn obtained a grant of lands on the west side of the Delaware river, extending northward to the forty third degree of latitude. The date of this grant is nearly nineteen years after the date of the charter of Connecticnt; but it covers a part of the territory which the people of Connecticut considered as granted to them. For nearly a century after the date of the charter, Connecticut neglected to claim and settle that part of her territory, which lay westward of the colony of New York; and the commissioners sent by the king determined in 1664, that the river or creek called Maronec, should be the western boundary of Connecticut.

325. *Purchase and settlement of Wyoming.* After Connecticut had granted all the lands eastward of New York, some persons formed a design of planting the lands within her charter, on the Susquehannah. A company was formed in 1753, and a purchase made from the sachems of the six nations, by deed dated July 11th, 1754, of a large tract of land on the Susquehannah, at Wyoming. The legislature of Connecticut sanctioned the proceeding; but by reason of the war which followed, the land lay vacant till 1762, when the first settlements were begun, which were enlarged in the following years, and especially in 1768. In 1774, the settlement was erected into a town called Westmoreland, which sent representatives to the assembly of Connecticut. In 1776, it was formed into a county, and courts established, as in other counties in the colony.

326. *Pennsylvania purchase of the same lands.* The treaty of the Connecticut men with the Indians, and the subsequent purchase, excited the jealousy of the proprietaries of Pennsylvania; and they entered into a negotiation with Hendrick, a sachem who had de-

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clined signing the deed to the Connecticut purchasers, to procure a deed of the same lands and defeat the Connecticut purchase. This object was effected so far as that a deed of the lands was obtained from the Indian chiefs. Grants of lands were made under the government of Pennsylvania, and settlements begun which excited warm disputes, and an attempt was made to drive the Connecticut settlers from the lands by force of arms.

327. *Progress of this controversy.* In 1770 the legislature of Connecticut transmitted to England certain questions to be proposed to the most able lawyers, respecting her title to lands west of New York. The answers were favorable to her claims and determined the colony to maintain them. But the revolutionary war suspended the controversy, until the year 1781, when both states agreed to appoint commissioners with full power to determine the dispute. The commissioners were appointed, and an act of congress was passed, constituting them a court to hear and determine the controversy. This act was dated August 23, 1782. On the 19th of November 1782, the commissioners met and opened the court at Trenton.

328. *Points in the controversy.* The agents of Connecticut, in support of their claims, relied on the charter granted in 1620 to the council of Plymouth—the Earl of Warwick's deed to Lords Say and Seal and company in 1631—the charter of Connecticut granted in 1662, and the purchase from the Indians in 1754. The agents of Pennsylvania rested their cause on the grant of the lands to William Penn in 1681—a deed from the Indians to the proprietary, dated October 25, 1736, granting to him the right of preemption to the lands in question—and on the known and established bounds of the state of Pennsylvania. It was urged that the settlement of the line between New York and Connecticut in 1650, 1664 and 1683, had established the western boundary

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of Connecticut. But the agents of the latter state maintained that those decisions were intended only to fix the divisional line between New York and Connecticut.

329. *Determination of the Court.* On the 13th of December 1782, the court pronounced their judgment, that it was their unanimous opinion, the state of Connecticut had no right to the lands in controversy; but that the jurisdiction and preemption of all the territory lying within the charter boundary of Pennsylvania, then claimed by Connecticut, of right belonged to Pennsylvania. This decision terminated the controversy on the part of the state of Connecticut; but as it did not determine the right to the soil, a long and violent controversy ensued between Pennsylvania and the settlers at Wyoming.

330. *Western Reserve.* Notwithstanding the state of Connecticut acquiesced in the decision of the court at Trenton, so far as it respected the land claimed by Pennsylvania, yet they maintained their claim to all the territory within the north and south boundary lines of the state, as expressed in the charter, lying west of the Western limits of Pennsylvania, and extending to the Mississippi. In compliance with the recommendation of congress, and with a view to obtain the implied sanction of their charter claims, the state of Connecticut, by their delegates in congress in the year 1786 ceded to the United States, all the lands within the charter limits, west of Pennsylvania, excepting a tract of one hundred and twenty miles in length, adjoining to Pennsylvania, on the west. This cession was accepted, and the acceptance was considered as an indirect acknowledgment that the Connecticut claim was well founded. This tract of one hundred and twenty miles, thus execpted out of the cession, was called the *Reserve.*

331. *Sale and appropriations of the Reserve.* A part of the reserved land, amounting to half a million of acres, was granted by the state to the inhabitants of

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New London, Fairfield, and Norwalk, whose property had been destroyed by the British troops, during the war. The remainder was sold, in 1795, and the money arising from the sale appropriated to the purpose of constituting a perpetual fund, for the support of schools in the state. To secure this land and the title to the purchasers, against the claims of the United States, an act of congress was obtained in the beginning of the year 1800, by which the title of Connecticut was confirmed, and the purchasers secured in their possessions; on the condition that the state of Connecticut should relinquish all future claim to land, lying westward of the present limits of the state. At the May session of the legislature in 1800, an act was passed fully complying with this condition, and thus ended a controvery which had lasted more than thirty years. The territory thus reserved forms a part of the state of Ohio.

QUESTIONS.

281. Who was the great enemy of Massachusetts colony?

282. When did the council of Plymouth surrender their charter?

282. When did the king and council demand the charter of Massachusetts to be surrendered?

283. What was the plan of the enemies of the colonies?

284. What complaints were made against the colonies? and when was the charter of Massachusetts vacated?

285. What colonies surrendered their charters?

286. How was the charter of Connecticut preserved?

286, 287, Who was appointed first governor general over New England and annexed Connecticut to Massachusetts?

288. What event relieved the colonies from the tyranny of Andross?

288. When did Massachusetts obtain a new charter, and when was the Plymouth colony united to Massachusetts?

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289. Who attempted to unite the colonies to the crown of England in the reign of king William?

290. Who disputed the right of the English to the lands on the Connecticut river?

291. When did the people begin a settlement on Long Island?

292. When and how was the dispute with the Dutch adjusted?

293. How were the New Haven people treated in Delaware? What put an end to the Dutch war? When was the Dutch fort at Hartford taken?

294. When was the charter of Connecticut obtained, comprehending New Haven? What was the event?

294. When and by whom were the Dutch subdued?

295. How was the boundary between Connecticut and New-York settled, and what is the line.

296. When was New-York finally restored to England?

297. When did Sir Edmond Andross attempt to take Saybrook, and what was the event?

298. When was the line between Connecticut and New-York finally determined? What is that line? What exchange of lands was made?

299. 300. 301. Give some account of the attempts to determine the bounds of Massachusetts and Connecticut? When was the line finally settled?

302. 303. Give an account of the attempts to settle the bounds of Rhode Island?

307. When were the bounds of Rhode Island finally settled?

308. When was New Hampshire made a royal government?

309. When was the line between Massachusetts and New Hampshire settled?

310. How long did Vermont remain unsettled?

310. When was fort Dummer built?

311. Which is the oldest town in Vermont?

323. When was Vermont admitted into the Union?

327. 328. 329. When and how was the controversy between Connecticut and Pennsylvania determined?

330. 331. What was the origin of the Connecticut Reserve, and to what purpose was the land appropriated?

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SECTION X.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS.

332. *Government and Laws of the New England Colonies.* The charter under which the first settlements in New England were made, vested in the corporations, the power of making all laws which should be deemed expedient, provided they were not repugnant to the laws of England. By the charter of Massachusetts, the powers of government were lodged in the governor, deputy governor, and eighteen assistants, who were to be chosen by the freemen, and who constituted a court to be held monthly; and in the whole body of the freemen, who were to be summoned to hold a general court at least once in a year. The first general court in Boston was held May 17, Old Style, 1631, when all the freemen attended and took the oath.

333. *First practice under the Charter.* At the first election, the freemen chose the assistants and these chose the governor and deputy governor from among their own number; but this was a departure from the charter; and at the general court in May 1632, it was ordered that the freemen should choose the governor and assistants annually, and the governor be always selected from among the assistants. The governor and assistants at first exercised great powers, even to the laying of taxes, without consulting the freemen. The people in Watertown opposed this practice, but the court of assistants summoned them to appear before the court at Boston, and convinced them that the "government was rather in the nature of a parliament, than of a city corporation." The opposers therefore submitted and retracted what was called their error; but in fact was a correct opinion.

334. *Qualifications of a Freeman.* In addition to the usual qualifications of electors, the possession of property and a good character, the first settlers of

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New England made it requisite, that a man should be in full communion with the church, to entitle him to the privilege of voting for rulers, and it was usual for the candidate to procure a certificate from his minister, of his orthodox principles and moral conversation. In Massachusetts, a proposition was made to the court in 1644, to repeal this law and extend the rights of freemen to others, who were not church members; but it was postponed, and the law continued till the year 1662, when it was repealed, in conformity with the injunctions of king Charles the 2d.

335. *Changes in the government of Massachusetts.* It was customary at first for all the freemen of the colony to meet in general court, and the governor, assistants and freemen all assembled in one body or house. As the freemen multiplied, it became inconvenient for all to attend, and at the election in April 1634, the freemen chose two of their number from each town to meet and consult upon some matters, previous to the general court in May, which had for their object a limitation of the powers of the court of assistants. After a consultation, and a perusal of the charter, they were convinced that the court of assistants had exceeded their powers, and repaired to the governor to advise with him and to propose the abrogation of some of their laws. The governor suggested, that as it was inconvenient for all the freemen to attend, a select number of them should revise, consider and prepare new laws or alterations, for the general court.

336. *Establishment of Representatives.* In consequence of these proceedings, the general court in May 1634, enacted that there should be four general courts annually, but the whole body of freemen should be present only at the court of elections, and at the other three courts, *deputies* only, from the towns should attend and manage the public concerns. The number of deputies from each town was three until the year 1639, when by an order of the general court the

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number was reduced to two. This ordinance excited much popular jealousy, which gradually yielded to a full conviction of its expedience.

337. *Origin of a negative vote in the Court of Assistants.* At the general court in September 1634, the Newtown people under Mr. Hooker, presented a request for permission to remove to Connecticut; alledging, as reasons, the want of more room to accomodate themselves with pasturage, the fertility of the Connecticut land and the urgency of their wishes. Many objections were raised to this proposal; among others, the unity of the Newtown people under the charter, and their duty to protect the colony, which was weak and exposed to assaults from the savages; they urged also the exposure of the people to the Dutch and Indian on the Connecticut. After great debate, the vote was taken; the governor and two assistants were in favor of the removal; the deputy governor and the rest of the assistants were against it; of the deputies, fifteen were for it, and ten against it. As the charter required seven of the assistants, to make a quorum, and there was not a majority of that number for the removal, the governor and assistants contended, that the vote was not carried in the affirmative. On the other hand, there was a majority of the deputies in favor of it, and the deputies contended that the assistants could not impose a negative on their vote.

338. *Progress of this Dispute.* As neither of the parties would yield the point in dispute, the court adjourned without entering the vote on record; all agreeing however to keep a day of religious humiliation on that occasion, which was observed by all the congregations. Mr. Cotton, an eminent and influential clergyman, preached a sermon, in which he maintained the "strength of the magistracy or assistants to be their authority—that of the people, their liberty—that of the ministry, their purity," and he gave such reasons for the negative power of each, that, if not

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convinced, all were satisfied to let the question subside. A few days after, the court met, and business was carried on amicably; the assistants maintaining their negative voice, even while the representatives sat with them in the same room and all formed but one house or legislative body.

340. *Divison of the Legislature into two Branches.* The assistants and deputies continued to sit in the same room and vote together about ten years; but not without great discontent on the part of the deputies, who conceived themselves abridged of their just rights, by the negative vote of the assistants. In March 1644, this dispute gave rise to a motion on the part of the deputies, that the assistants and deputies should separate and hold their deliberations in different rooms; and that the concurrence of both houses should be necessary to pass a bill into a law or resolve. The motion prevailed; and thus was established the distribution of the legislative power into two houses, which remains to this day, and has been adopted as a principle in the American Costitutions. In Connecticut, however the practice of the assistants and deputies, sitting and voting together continued, until the October session in 1698, when the legislature passed an act by which that body was divided into two houses.

341. *Attempts in Massachusetts to create Magistrates for Life.* It was an opinion among our pious ancestors that great respect should be paid to elderly men, to magistrates and to ministers. This opinion was justified by the scriptures, and productive of very salutary effects. Some persons, carried their attempts farther than was agreeable to public opinion. Before the general court at Boston in May, 1634, Mr. Cotton in a sermon maintained that a magistrate ought not to be turned into the condition of a private man; and the question afterwards coming before the court, was prudently postponed. In May 1636, a law passed to continue certain magistrates or assistants in office for life, as a standing council, and two were cho-

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sen for the purpose. But in May 1639, one of the elders giving his opinion that the governor ought to hold his office for life, popular jealousy was alarmed and a bill was presented to prohibit a councilor from exercising his office, unless annually elcted to be a magistrate. This bill to quiet the apprehensions of the people was readily passed into a law.

342. *Introduction of Voting by proxy.* As the people were resolutely opposed to the extension of the power of the assistants, always pleading the charter to justify their opposition; so they took the liberty to depart from the letter of that instrument, when it was judged expedient. The charter vested the powers of government in a court of assistants and the whole body of freemen; making no provision for voting by proxy. But in May 1636, a law passed permitting freemen of *remote* towns to send their votes by proxy to the court of elections. One reason for this alteration, was, the difficulty of procuring provisions for the whole assembly of freemen. This precedent being established, was afterwards followed by all the towns.

343. *Manner of Voting.* In electing officers, the freemen at first used beans and corn; a bean gave a negative; and a kernel of corn, an affirmative vote. In 1634, pieces of paper were used; those for the governor and deputy governor containing the name of the person voted for; but in choosing assistants, the name of a person was proposed by the governor or presiding officer; those who voted for the person, gave a paper with some writing on it; those who voted against him, gave a blank paper. This gave rise to the manner of electing the council of Connecticut by nomination, which was practiced till the formation of the present constitution in the year 1818.

344. *The choice of the Governor.* It was an established law in the colonies to elect one of the assistants to be governor. This law in Connecticut was repealed in 1708, and the freemen were empowered to elect a governor from among their own body at

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large. But in such estimation were the governor and assistants usually held by the people, that the same persons were almost uniformly rechosen annually to their respective offices, during life, or during their ability to perform public business. This unchanging confidence in their rulers, was a principal means of the stability of government and harmony of councils, which distinguished the New England republics.

345. *Laws of the first Colonies.* For a few years after the colonies were settled in New England, the magistrates governed by temporary regulations, or discretionary decisions; aiming to bottom all their laws and proceedings on the word of God. But as many cases occurred which it was difficult to determine for want of precise rules, and the people thought such discretionary powers unsafe, the court of Massachusetts appointed a committee in March 1638, to compile a body of fundamental laws. The draft was prepared and in autumn 1639, published for consideration. In December 1641, the general court enacted the laws, which were called the "Body of Liberties." Most of these laws were copied into the first code of Connecticut.

346. *Character of the Primitive New England code.* Most of the laws of the first settlers were founded on justice, the laws of England and of nations, but adapted to the peculiar circumstances of the colonies. They were devised by able men of strict probity and religion, and remain the basis of the civil institutions of the states to this day. But as the compilers of those codes, were puritans of rigid principles, their reverence for the scriptures led them to adopt some of the levitical laws, which are not adapted to modern times. Hence blasphemy, an obstinate denial of the being of a God, adultery, stubborn disobedience of childred, and witchcraft were punishable with death, and heretics were sudject to banishment. Under these laws, some persons suffered punishments that were cruel and unjust. But the colonies were no worse than the moth-

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er country, where dissenters of all kinds were cruelly persecuted, and where witchcraft was punishable with death, long after the tragedies of that sort had ceased in New England. It was an intolerant spirit common to all Europe, and the other American colonies.

347. *Primitive Government of Plymouth Colony.* The planters at Plymouth were few in number, and they adopted the laws of England mostly as the rules of judging in their own concerns, but, like those of Massachusetts, they annexed to some crimes penalties far too severe. They at first elected no civil officer except a governor and one assistant; in 1624, four more assistants were added, and in 1633, two more, making seven in all, which number continued til they resigned their charter to Andross. They had no deputies from the towns, until the year 1639, when deputies were chosen and formed one house with the governor and assistants. Before that time, the freemen attended in person.

348. *Judiciary Power of the New England Colonies.* The supreme power of deciding all cases in law and equity, was originally in the court of assistants in Massachusetts; and in Plymouth, was vested in the governor and assistants by a law in 1634. The same law was adopted in Connecticut; and when by the increase of people and business, it was found inconvenient for the whole body of assistants to attend, it became a custom for the general court to appoint anually four of the assistants with the deputy governor, to constitute the superior court. This practice continued till the May session 1784, when the governor, deputy govenor and assistants were disabled from holding the office of a judge of that court. The practice of the annual appointment of judges, derived from the practice of choosing the assistants annually, subsisted till the formation of the new costitution in 1818. The judges of the county courts also were at first taken from among the assistants. As the supreme judiciary power, in the infant state of the colonies, was exer-

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cised by the general court, when the assistants and deputies met in one house, so the legislature of Connecticut for a long time after its division into two houses, retained the same power.

349. *The ecclesiastical Affairs of the New England Colonies.* The puritans left England and settled in America, for the purpose of enjoying liberty of conscience, not being willing to conform to the ceremonies of the church of England. In America, they adopted the independent or congregational plan of government; by which each church chooses its own minister and officers, and submits to no government or censure from another church. They elected pastors and teachers, ruling elders and deacons; and it was the practice at times for the elders or principal men to expound passages of scripture, or discuss questions, which was called *prophesying*, in imitation of the primitive churches. No church could be gathered, without the permission of the magistrates. Ordination was performed by the laying on of hands, either of the neighboring ministers, or of lay brethren of the church. The former method was the most usual. The office of ruling elder and the custom of prophesying soon went into disuse.

350. *Sabbath and some peculiar Customs.* The first settlers had scruples about the lawfulness of calling the days of the week by the names derived from idolatrous nations; they therefore called them by the numbers, first, second, third, &c. They called the first day, Sabbath or Lord's day; the months they called the first, second, third, &c. beginning the year on the 26th of March, which was the first month—April, the second, and so on. The time of beginning the Sabbath was a subject of much debate and difficulty. The practice of keeping Saturday evening as holy time, seems to have originated in an order or injunction of the governor and deputy governor of the New England company, dated in England April 17, 1629, and directed to Mr. Endicott at Salem, that all

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persons should cease from labor at three o'clock on Saturday afternoon, and spend the rest of the day in catechising and preparation for the sabbath. This practice was against the opinion of some eminent clergymen of that day, especially of Mr. Hooker.

351. *Public Lectures.* For four years after Boston was settled, four lectures were preached weekly; but in October 1634, it was agreed by the ministers and magistrates, that this number required too much time; and therefore they reduced the number to two, which were to be preached alternately at Boston, Cambridge, Roxbury and Dorchester. The number is now reduced to one, which is preached every Thursday at Boston.

352. *Days of Fasting and Thanksgiving.* The churches laid aside the regular festivals of the Church of England, and appointed days of fasting, on special occasions, such as times of severe drouth, great mortality, scarcity of provisions, danger from the savages and the like. Days of thanksgiving were appointed on occasions of great joy, such as the conquest of the Pequots, the termination of Indian wars, and especially for abundant crops. These occasional days were frequent during the first generation, who suffered peculiar hardships, and who were exposed to unceasing perils, which impressed their minds deeply, with a sense of their dependence on the Supreme Being. The practice of the first settlers has given rise, among their descendants, to a regular appointment of a day of humiliation in the spring, and a day of thanksgiving in autumn.

353. *Church Discipline.* The first churches were very rigid in their authority over the principles and morals of their members. The least deviation from what they believed to be orthodoxy, and every immorality, was subjected to church censure. This narrow inspection of every man's conduct, produced for many years, most exact morals in life and great uniformity of doctrines. But it was not possible to prevent differen-

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ces of opinion, and when these arose, the severity with which the persons who avowed them, were censured, occasioned many heartburnings and mutual reproaches. Some persons were banished from Massachusetts, or excommunicated by the churches, and leaving the colony, they planted Rhode Island. The same rigid principles led to many abtruse inquiries and minute distinctions on religious subjects, which divided the opinions of people; and in some instances, churches were rent asunder by speculative distinctions that are hardly intelligible. This party spirit was the offspring of excessive zeal, to preserve a pure church; for men had not learned that party spirit, in religion as in government, always thrives under persecution, and obstinate intolerance. But this intolerant spirit lasted but a few years.

354. *Platform of the Churches.* In 1634 the churches in New England adopted certain canons and constitutions, defining the officers, their duties, modes of election, and the rules of proceeding and government. In 1648, a synod of elders and messengers at Cambridge adopted a platform of church government, containing the principles held by the churches, and an explanation of the powers and duties of the officers, the mode of ordination, the powers of the church, the manner of maintaining ministers, and the rules of admission, excommunication and censure. In 1708, delegates from the councils of the counties in Connecticut met at Saybrook and agreed upon an ecclesiastical constitution, called the *platform*, containing a confession of faith and regulations for administering church discipline. This was confirmed by the legislature in October of the same year, and remains the basis of church government to this day.

355. *Union of Churches in Connecticut.* By the Saybrook platform, the ministers, elders and messengers of all the churches in a county or other district, constitute a *consociation*. The ministers of the churches in a county or other district, form an *association*,

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which is empowered to examine and recommend candidates. These councils are consulted in regard to religious concerns, and assist the churches in ordaining and dismissing their ministers; but their powers are mostly advisory. They however contribute by their influence, to preserve peace and harmony among churches, restrain controversies and reconcile differences. A general association consists of delegates from the several associations in the state, and holds an annual meeting in each of the counties by rotation.

356. *Support of the Congregational Clergy.* The first ministers in New England were maintained by weekly contributions. The famous Mr. Cotton preached a sermon in Boston, in December 1633, in which he urged that the scriptures clearly direct the maintenance of ministers to be defrayed, like other charges of the church, out of a chest or treasury to be supplied by contribution; upon which the church adopted the practice. But it was laid down as a principle, in the first church laws, that ministers ought to be supported by their hearers, and in case of neglect, that the magistrates might be called upon to compel them to make payment. The clergy have now fixed salaries paid by a tax on the pews of the church or the property of the hearers. The first settlers in Rhode Island adopted a different principle, and a declaration of general toleration, being incorporated into the charter of that colony, the laws furnish no aid in supporting the gospel. In none of the states, at this time, is a man compelled to maintain religious worship, in a church to which he does not belong.

357. *Introduction of the Episcopal Church.* There was no regular public worship in Massachusetts, except in the congregational churches, until the year 1686, when an episcopal church, consisting of about four hundred persons, met regularly for worship. The first episcopal church in Connecticut was collected at Rye in 1704, under Mr. Muirson. The second was formed at Stratford in 1706. Some opposition was

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made to the establishment of that church in the colony, which served only to increase the zeal of its advocates. From such small beginnings, the episcopal church has become large and respectable in many parts of New England, especially in the commercial towns.

358. *Community of Lands and Goods in Plymouth.* The first adventurers to Plymouth placed all their property in a common stock, to be used and improved for the benefit of the company. The lands also were at first cultivated in common, and the fruits of the earth, deposited in a common magazine. Within three years, experience convinced the people of the absurdity of the project; for many persons, expecting to be maintained out of the public fund, neglected to labor, and the colony was in danger of perishing with hunger. In 1623, the company placed every single person in some family, assigned a portion of land to each, and left every family to trust to its own labor for food. The consequence was the settlers became more contented, and had food in abundance.

359. *Sumptuary and Regulating Laws.* The planters of New England, on their arrival in a wilderness, where it was difficult at first to obtain the necessaries of life, and impossible to enjoy luxuries, attempted by example and law to restrain all excesses in diet or dress. Governor Winthrop, soon after he arrived, laid aside the practice of drinking healths, at his own table, and recommended it to others. In 1639, the practice was forbid by law. In 1634, laws were passed prohibiting the use of tobacco, immodest fashions, and costly apparel. In 1633, a law was made to limit the price of labor; workmen being scarce and demanding high wages. Master workmen were allowed two shillings and laborers, eighteen pence, a day; money being of sterling value. It was also ordered that the advance on goods should not exceed four [illegible] on a shilling, beyond the price in England. laws had no durable effect, and the general

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court in 1640, finding that laborers would either transgress the laws or leave the colony, repealed the act regulating wages, and left every town to fix the price of labor amongst its own inhabitants, which had a better effect.

360. *First Shipping bilt in New England.* The first attempt to bild water craft in New England, was in 1626. The Plymouth people, finding themselves exposed to great hazards in coasting with an open boat, and having no ship carpenter, employed a house carpenter, who sawed into two parts their largest boat, inserted timbers to lengthen it five or six feet, bilt a deck, and rigged it into a convenient vessel, which did service for seven years.

The first vessel bilt in Massachusetts was a bark of thirty tons, bilt by Governor Winthrop, at Mistic, lanched July 4, 1631; and called the *Blessing of the Bay.* The day of the first lanch is now the anniversary of Independence. In 1633, a small ship of sixty tons was bilt at Medford. In 1636, a ship of one hundred and thirty tons was bilt at Marblehead, and called the *Desire,* which belonged to the people of Salem, whose descendants are remarkable for their commercial enterprise. This was the first American ship that made a voyage to England.

361. *Causes which promoted Ship Bilding.* The planters of New England had vested all their property in money, or necessaries for beginning a plantation; but having little commerce, their money was, in a few years, expended, and they had few resources to supply themselves. Foreign ships came to trade with them, but took little besides money in payment, by which means the colonies were soon drained of cash. Brass farthings were sometimes used for small change, and afterwards bullets. In 1640, money had become so scarce, that the government directed grain to be given in payment of debts, at fixed prices; and when no personal estate could be found, lands to be apprized to creditors upon execution. This was the ori-

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gin of tender laws. In this situation, the price of lands, and of cattle fell to a fourth of their former nominal value. This put the people upon sowing flax and hemp, and importing cotton.

362. *First attempt to encourage Commerce.* In this languishing state of trade, the apprehension of a want of foreign commodities, alarmed the people in Massachusetts, and they determined to provide shipping of their own. Mr. Peters, a public spirited man, procured a number of persons to join him in bilding a ship of three hundred tons at Salem in 1640, and this example was soon followed by the inhabitants of Boston, who bilt one of one hundred and sixty tons. Both were finished in 1641. That of Boston was called the Trial. Money was not obtainable to pay the carpenters, but they agreed to take the produce of the country. Thus commenced a spirit of commerce which has made the northern states rich and respectable.

363. *Fisheries and Trade of the Colonies.* Within a few years after the discovery of North America by Cabot, the English and French began to take great quantities of fish on the American coast, especially on the banks of Newfoundland. This business had become of great importance, more than fifty years before the settlement of Plymouth. The fish were mostly carried to Spain and Portugal. The first planters in New England found their time and money so much occupied in procuring the means of subsistence, that for some years, they could not carry on the fisheries to a great extent. Their principal article of export was peltry; and mostly beaver skins, which they purchased of the Indians for goods of small value. To procure beaver, was the first object of the colonies in establishing trading houses at Kennebec, Connecticut and other places. In 1639, a fishing trade was begun at Cape Ann, and the stock employed in it was exempted from taxation for seven years. This seems to have been the first act of government for encour-

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aging the fishery. In 1641, three hundred thousand codfish were sent to market.

364. *Importance of the Peltry Trade to the Colonies.* Of such value was the trade in peltry, to the first planters, that each colony claimed and maintained an exclusive right of trading with the Indians, within the limits of its own patent. Hence arose serious contests between the colonies. In 1631, a small pinnace from Salem, bound to Boston, was driven into Plymouth by adverse winds, and the governor of Plymouth was so much alarmed with the fear that the people should open a trade with the natives, that he forbad them and threatened to oppose them by force. A similar jealousy caused a contest between the Plymouth traders at Kennebec and a trading boat from Pascataqua, in which two men were killed. This trade also was a principal cause of the controversy between the English and the Dutch, concerning the right to Connecticut river. And so valuable was the trade, that the English even planted maiz for the Indians, the better to enable them to spend their time in collecting beaver.

365. *Progress of Trade in the Colonies.* The planters imported at first much of their provisions, and for many years, all their clothing from England. In 1631, on account of a scarcity in England, their wheat, with the freight, cost them fourteen shillings sterling a bushel, and pease eleven and six pence. From Virginia, they received small supplies of maiz. In 1631, a small pinnace from Virginia sold her maiz in Salem for ten shillings sterling the bushel. In the same year, an English ship, after landing some cattle at Boston, sailed to St Kitts, but not to return to New England. In 1634, a vessel went to Bermuda and returned by the way of Virginia, with corn ond oats. The first vessel directly from the West Indies, was a Dutch ship of 160 tons, which came from St. Kitts and arrived at Marblehead, in May, 1635, laden with salt and tobacco. St. Kitts had then been settled

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twelve years, and contained about four thousand inhabitants. In June, the same year, arrived two Dutch ships from the Texel, with horses and cattle; the price of such animals being high—horses and mares from thirty to forty pounds sterling—cows and heifers, from twelve to twenty five pounds, and sheep fifty shillings. In April 1636, the small ship bilt at Medford returned from Bermuda, with potatoes, which were sold in Boston at two pence the pound; corn being very scarce.

366. *Trade to the West Indies.* The first American vessel that went to the West Indies, was a pinnace of thirty tons, which, in 1636, was bound to Bermuda, and attempting to return, was forced by stress of weather, to Hispaniola, now Hayti. She returned the next spring, with *hides* and *tallow*. The next year, the Salem ship, Desire, made a voyage to New Providence and Tortuga, and returned in March 1638, laden with cotton, tobacco, salt and *negroes*. This seems to be the date of the first introduction of Africans into New England. The next arrival from the West Indies was a small English vessel, in 1639, with indigo and sugar; and this is the first mention, in our annals, of the importation of these articles. In 1642 three ships were bilt, one at Boston, one at Salem, and the other at Dorchester. In the same year, a Dutch ship from the West Indies exchanged her cargo of salt for plank and pipe staves; the first export of lumber to the West Indies mentioned in the annals of New England. A second ship arrived the same year, and took a cargo of pipe staves, and ten ships sailed with lumber before winter. This first discovery of new markets for lumber excited no small joy among the planters; for staves had lain useless on their hands.

367. *Trade to other Foreign Countries.* In autumn 1642, a small ship arrived at Boston from Madeira laden with wine and sugar, which were exchanged for pipe staves and other commodities. One of the Boston ships, laden with lumber and fish, made a voy-

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age to Fayal and the West Indies. The other lumber ships, which went to the West Indies, made successful voyages, and returned in the spring of 1643 with wine, sugar and cotton. At that time the colonies were in great distress for food, owing to a bad crop of corn; and otherwise impoverished, so that some of the people actually left New England, and many talked of abandoning the country. The successes of their infant trade, at this juncture gave them new life, contributing to establish the settlements and render them prosperous.

368. *The trade of Connecticut.* The planters on the Connecticut occupying a rich soil, attended very little to trade, for many years. They exported horses and lumber to the West Indies, Fayal, and Madeira, but in 1680, the amount did not exceed nine thousand pounds. At that time no more than twenty small vessels belonged to the colony. They had a trifling trade with New York, but most of their traders supplied themselves with goods at Boston, where they sold the provisions which were exported. The primitive planters of New Haven contemplated a great trade; but a ship of one hundred and fifty tons, which they had procured to be bilt at Rhode Island, going to sea, in the winter of 1646–7–foundered and was lost with six or seven of the principal planters; which, with other discouragements, frustrated their intentions.

369. *Arts and Manufactures.* The first mill erected by the planters was a windmill near Watertown, but the situation not being good, it was taken down in August 1632 and placed on a hill in Boston. To this mill corn was brought from Pascataqua to be ground. In 1633, a watermill was erected by one Dummer, at Roxbury. In 1636, a windmill was erected at Charlestown, and watermills at Salem, Ipswich and Newbury. By order of the court, a market was erected in Boston in March 1634, and Thursday was directed to be the weekly market day. In

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the same year was set up the first merchants shop and the first house of entertainment. The manufactures of the settlers were very few, and confined to the most necessary articles of clothing and utensils for agriculture. Not being used to clearing lands of wood, they bestowed more labor than was necessary, as they dug up all the stumps of the trees. By bills of charges now extant, it appears that the clearing of a home lot in Hartford, cost fifty pounds sterling an acre.

370. *Introduction of Printing.* The first printing press in New England, was established at Cambridge, in March 1639, by one Day; the proprietor's name was Glover, who died on his passage to America. The first thing printed was the freemen's oath; the second an almanac; and the third a version of the psalms. No press was set up in Connecticut until the year 1709, when printing was begun at New London by one Short. The first code of Connecticut laws was revised by the general court held at Hartford in October 1672, and printed by Samuel Green at Cambridge, in Massachusetts in 1675. The first Gazette published in New England, was the News Letter, printed in Boston in 1704. The first newspaper in Connecticut was the Connecticut Gazette, begun at New Haven by James Parker, in January, 1755 but it was discontinued in 1767, the printer moving to New York.

371. *Foundation of Colleges.* The first college in the colonies was that at Cambridge, founded in 1638. The first commencement was held in October 1642, when nine students were admitted to the degree of bachelors. It took its name, *Harvard*, from a principal benefactor. For more than sixty years, gentlemen in Connecticut sent their sons to Cambridge for an education; but in 1699 the clergy in Connecticut nominated ten of their number, as trustees to found a college. These met at New Haven in 1700 and formed a society, which was to consist of eleven clergymen and a rector, for the purpose of establish-

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ing and governing a college. A charter of incorporation was granted by the legislature in October 1701. Mr. Pierson of Killingworth was appointed the first rector, and during his life, he instructed the students in that town. The first commencement was in September 1702. On the death of Mr. Pierson in 1704, the students were placed in Milford and Saybrook, under different instructors, and so continued until 1716, when New Haven was made the permanent seat of the college. It is called *Yale College*, after the name of one of its principal benefactors.

372. *Establishment of Public Schools.* The first planters of New England, aware of the importance of knowledge and learning among a free, christian people, extended their care to the education of their children; and as soon as the first difficulties of obtaining subsistence, were overcome, passed laws for encouraging the general diffusion of knowledge. In Massachusetts and Connecticut, every town, containing a sufficient number of householders, was obliged to procure a teacher for such children as parents wished to put under his care. In Connecticut, this provision extended to females as well as males. And the better to induce every town to avail itself of this provision, the law grants and appropriates, to each town or school district, a sum of money payable out of the treasury of the state, equal to one five hundredth part of the value of the taxable property of the inhabitants, as rated in the grand list or public assessment. In addition to this, each town has the command of a large fund arising from the sale of a tract of land called the *Western Reserve.* In consequence of which almost every child in the state has access to a school, some part of the year.

QUESTIONS.

332. What sort of governments were those of New-England, by their charters?

333. How were the first governors of Massachusetts chosen?

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334. What were the qualificatiens of freemen or electors?

335, 336. The first legislature of Massachusetts consisted of one house, and all the freemen attended. When was the practice altered?

340. When and how was the division into two branches made?

342. When was voting by proxy introduced?

343. What was the manner of voting?

344. How was the governor of Connecticut elected?

345. What were the first laws of the colonies? When was a body of laws compiled?

346. What was the character of the first settlers of New England?

347. What was the first government of the Plymouth colony?

348. What was the supreme judicial power in the colonies?

349. Why did the Puritans leave England? What form of church government did they establish?

350. What name did the first settlers give to the days of the week and to the months? What was the origin of keeping Saturday evening as holy time?

351. What lectures were established in Boston?

352. Why were days of fasting and thanksgiving established?

353. What was the discipline of the churches?

354. When was a platform of church government established?

355. Whence arose the union of churches by associations and consociations?

356. How were the clergy at first supported? and how at present?

357. When was the first episcopal church collected in Massachusetts, and when in Connecticut?

358. How was property held in the first settlement of Plymouth? in common or in severalty?

359. How did the puritans attempt to restrain luxury?

360. When was the first vessel bilt in New England, when was it lanched, and what was it called?

361. What was the first commerce and what the money of the first planters of Massachusetts?

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362. Who bilt the first ship for foreign trade? Where was it bilt?

363. What were the chief articles of export?

363. When was the fishery begun?

364. What occasioned jealousies between the colonies?

365. Whence did the first planters of New England obtain their provisions and clothing?

366. What vessel first went from New England to the West Indies? and in what year?

366. Where was a market first found for lumber?

367. When did the first ship arrive from Madeira?

368. What articles did Connecticut export?

368. What great loss did New Haven sustain?

369. When was the first mill erected and where?

370. When and by whom was printing introduced?

370. What was first printed at Cambridge?

370. When was the first printing press established in Connecticut?

370. When was the first code of Connecticut laws printed?

370. When was the first newspaper published?

371. When was the first college founded and where?

371. When was Yale College founded?

372. What measures did the planters of New England take to promote education?

SECTION X.

MILITARY EVENTS.

373. *Principal Wars in the Colonies.* While the people of this country remained under the dominion of Great Britain, they were involved in all her contentions with France and the Dutch. Soon after king William ascended the throne of England in 1688, war was declared by France, and the French commander in Canada instigated the savages to fall on the frontier settlements. It was on this occasion that Schenectady was sacked, and the inhabitants massacred. To put a stop to the depredations of the

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French and Savages, it was contemplated to conquer Canada. For this purpose an expedition was projected by the commissioners of the colonies in 1690. The crown was solicited to afford some aid, but it could not be granted on account of troubles in Great Britain.

374. *Expedition against Canada under Sir William Phips.* The land forces ordered for invasion consisted of eight hundred and fifty men, raised by the colonies of New England and New York, and commanded by General Winthrop. At the same time, a fleet of armed ships and transports, with eighteen hundred men, under Sir William Phips, was ordered to sail up the St. Lawrence, to cooperate with the land forces in the reduction of Quebec. But the expedition proved unsuccessful. The fleet had a long passage and did not arrive before Quebec till October. The land troops were not furnished with provisions, nor boats to convey them over the lake and they returned. The forces however landed from the fleet, and the ships cannonaded Quebec, without much effect: while they suffered severely from the batteries of the enemy. Stormy weather soon succeeded and made it necessary to abandon the enterprise.

375. *Col. Fletcher's Commission.* In 1692 Col. Fletcher arrived with the commission of governor of New York, and also with power to command the militia and garrisons of Connecticut. The colony immediately dispatched General Winthrop, as an agent, to remonstrate to the king and council, against this extraordinary power. In the mean time, Col. Fletcher went to Hartford, and in his majesty's name, required the colony to surrender to him the command of the military. The train bands in Hartford were paraded and Col. Fletcher directed his secretary to read his commission. But Captain Wadsworth the senior officer, ordered the drums to be beat and interrupted the reading. Col. Fletcher commanded silence, repeatedly, till Captain Wadsworth, with a

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firm tone, told him, "if he was not silent, he would make the sun shine through him in a moment." Col. Fletcher, finding he could not succeed, judged it expedient to withdraw, and returned to New York.

376. *The Progress and Conclusion of this War.* In the spring of 1690, Sir Willam Phips, with a few ships and a small number of men, took possession of Nova Scotia, and the country from Port Royal to Penobscot. The Massachusetts colony began to exercise the powers of government there; but was interrupted by Villebon, a Frenchman, who established himself on the river St. John. The French also sent a force from Quebec and took the fort at Pemaquid and demolished it. Upon which Capt. Church, with a body of troops, committed depredations upon the French inhabitants, and an attempt was made to take Villebon's fort, but by ill management it was frustrated. In 1693, a fleet under Sir Francis Wheeler, was ordered to act against the French in the West Indies, and then to repair to Quebec and in conjunction with a body of New England troops, reduce Canada. But by a malignant fever, which destroyed most of the troops of the fleet, this expediton was defeated. In 1697, the French in Canada planned an attack upon Boston, and a large fleet was sent from France to cooperate in the design; but adverse winds, and other ill events, frustrated the project. In the same year, a treaty of pence was signed at Ryswick, between England and France, and hostilities ceased.

377. *War in Queen Ann's Reign.* Soon after queen Ann succeeded to the English throne, in 1702 war was declared against France, and the settlements in New England were again exposed to the incursions of ferocious Frenchmen and Indians from Canada. In 1704, Col. Church, with a party of men, visited Nova Scotia, and distressed the poor inhabitants without taking any important post. After burning and plundering several towns and villages he returned. In 1707, a considerable force was sent

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under Col. March, to reduce Port Royal, in Nova Scotia; but after landing and engaging in some skirmishes, it was judged raw troops were not sufficient to take so strong a fort, and they retired to Casco. Here a reinforcement was received, and three persons arrived with authority from Massachusetts, to renew and inspect the seige. But a second attempt proved equally unsuccessful. In August 1708, a party of Indians, headed by Frenchmen, assaulted Haverhill on the Merrimac, burnt some of the houses and slew thirty or forty of the inhabitants. Mr. Rolfe, the minister, was killed; but his maid covered two of his young daughters with tubs in the cellar, and saved their lives.

378. *Progress of this War.* Finding the colonies could not be safe from the ravages of the French and Indians, while Canada and Nova Scotia were under the government of France, Massachusetts solicited, and the queen granted a large naval force, to aid in the reduction of those provinces. The New England colonies, with New York, in 1709, raised about two thousand and five hundred men, who were commanded by General Nicholson. These marched to Wood Creek, south of lake George, and there waited to hear of the arrival of the expected fleet at Boston. But the fleet did not arrive, and the troops lay at Wood Creek, till autumn. While encamped, they were attacked with a malignant disease, which occasioned a great mortality, and compelled them to withdraw. Thus ended all the expensive preparations for subduing Canada. The next year, however, a body of colonial troops, under General Nicholson, sailed to Port Royal, and took possession of it by capitulation.

379. *Expedition under Admiral Walker.* In 1711, General Nicholson procured of the queen, a fleet of men of war and transports, under Admiral Walker, for aiding in the conquest of Canada. This fleet arrived at Boston in June, and although not expected, the colonies made the best preparation they could to

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second the operations. The whole force, when the British and colonial troos were united, amounted to seven thousand men. General Nicholson went to Albany, intending, with additional forces, to join Admiral Walker before Quebec. The fleet sailed from Boston July 30th, but met with fogs and tempestuous weather, near the mouth of the St. Lawrence, in which eight or nine transports, with about a thousand men were lost, by ship wreck. This put an end to the expedition; the admiral sailed to England, and the colonial troops returned. The peace of Utrecht, signed March 3d, 1713, put an end to hostilities, and continued till 1739.

380. *The taking of Lewisburg.* Great Britain declared war against Spain in October 1739, and against France in March 1744. In the following winter, the legislature of Massachusetts planned a daring, but successful enterprise against Lewisburg, a strong fortress belonging to the French, on the isle of Cape Breton. The motive was to remove the French, who greatly annoyed our fishery; and Governor Shirley was the most active promoter of the expedition. Four thousand troops from Massachusetts, Connecticut and New Hampshire, under the command of General Pepperel, sailed from Boston, the last week in March 1745. The expedition was undertaken without the knowledge of the government of England; but a request had been made to Commodore Warren, then in the West Indies, to assist in its execution, who arrived with a sixty gun ship, and two or three frigates. The troops arrived, the latter part of April, and landing their heavy canon, planted batteries, without regard to system, and pushed the seige with such vigor, that the garrison capitulated on the 17th of June. This expedition was as honorable to the projectors, as the acquisition of the fortress was useful to the colonies, and the British Empire.

381. *French Chebucto Fleet.* In 1746, the French fitted out a fleet of eleven ships of the line, with a

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great number of smaller ships, and more than three thousand land forces, under the command of the duke Danville, for the purpose of recovering possession of Cape Breton and attacking the English colonies. This force was to be joined by four ships under Conflans from the West Indies, and seventeen hundred French and Indians from Canada. No English fleet sailed in quest of the French; and great was the consternation of the colonies, when news was received that the French fleet was near the American coast. But kind providence blasted the hopes of the enemy. By storms, some of the ships were damaged, and they bore away for the West Indies; one was condemned and burnt; one was forced to return to Brest by a malignant disease among her crew. A part of the fleet arrived at Chebucto, now Halifax, in September; but the admiral soon died, and the troops were sickly; so that the fleet returned to France and the colonies were providentially relieved from their anxiety. This war closed by a treaty of peace signed at Aix la Chapelle, in March 1748.

382. *Plan of a Union of the Colonies in* 1754. All the preceding wars had left the French masters of Canada; they were also in possession of Louisiana, a large tract of country, on the Mississippi. They knew the value of America, and had early formed the plan of restraining the settlements of the English. This was their object in all their wars, and for this purpose, they united with the Indians, in burning towns, and murdering the inhabitants. The better to accomplish their designs, they extended their settlements on the St. Lawrence and the Lakes; and finally attempted to establish a chain of fortified places from Canada to Louisiana, on the back of the English colonies. This alarmed Great Britain as well as the colonies, and the British government suggested to the colonies, the necessity of confederating for the purpose of mutual safety.

383. *Meeting of Commissioners and the plan pro-*

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posed. In July 17[illegible] commissioners from the northern and middle colonies met at Albany, and agreed to a plan of union, drawn up by Dr. Franklin. By this it was proposed that the confederate colonies should have a general government, formed by delegates from the several colonies, and appointed by the houses of representatives, once in three years. This government was to be administered by a president general, who was to be appointed and maintained by the crown. The powers of this grand council extended to affairs of general safety, especially to the regulation of trade with the Indians, purchases of their lands, treaties with them, new settlements, and making provision for defense, in time of war. This plan though obviously salutary for the colonies, was not approved by the crown; probably on account of a jealousy of the growing strength of the colonies, which made the British court apprehend a future resistance of the authority of parliament. In lieu of this plan, the British ministry proposed another, which should be more dependent on the crown; and by this difference of opinion, the projected union was frustrated.

384. *Beginning of the War in* 1754. The encroachments of the French, and the erection of forts, on land claimed by the colonies or the crown of Great Britain, occasioned an order from the crown to the colonies to resist the French. In November 1753, Major Washington, who afterwards commanded the armies of America, was dispatched by Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia, to learn the views of the French, who had taken possession of the territory on the Ohio. By the answer of the French commander, it appeared that the government of France claimed the country, and determined to keep possession. The Virginians then erected a fort on the Monongehala, but it was taken by the French in 1754. In July, the same year, Col. Washington, who commanded about four hundred men, was attacked by superior numbers and obliged to capitulate. In 1755, hostilities commenced

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between Great Britain and France, and America became the theater of important operations.

385. *General Braddock's Defeat.* Early in the spring of 1755, General Braddock, with two regiments, arrived in Virginia, and proceeded, together with a body of colonial troops, under Col. Washington, to drive the French from their fort on the Ohio. Being delayed by want of carriages and provisions, he did not arrive at Fort Cumberland, till June. Here he left Col. Dunbar with eight hundred men, to carry forward the provisions and heavy baggage; and advancing towards the French fort, du Quesne, which stood where Pittsburg is now bilt, his troops amounting to twelve hundred, fell into an ambush of Indians and French, who being concealed behind trees, fired with fatal effect, upon the British and American troops. The general and his principal officers were killed, with about seven hundred men; the remainder were saved by the brave and skillful conduct of Col. Washington.

386. *General Johnson's Victory.* In the same summer, the northern colonies raised a body of about five thousand men, who were intended to take Crown Point, a fort fifteen miles north of Ticonderoga. General Johnson, who commanded these troops, marched them to Lake George, where he encamped to wait for bateaus to transport the men down the lake. While he lay in that situation, a body of French forces under Baron Dieskau, advanced by South Bay, with a view to attack and seize the camp at the portage, now called Fort Edward. But understanding that the place was defended by cannon, and that General Johnson's camp was destitute of large guns, the Baron altered his plan and attacked General Johnson's troops. The French were repulsed with the loss of several hundred men. An expedition against Niagara, under Governor Shirley of Massachusetts, was intended, the same year, and a body of troops marched to the lake; but the execution of the

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plan was deferred on account of the lateness of the season.

387. *Conquest of Nova Scotia.* In the year 1755 also, an expedition against Nova Scotia was conducted by Col. Monckton and General Winslow, with a small body of English troops and two thousand men from Massachusetts. The principal fortress was taken with little loss, and the country subdued. The inhabitants were descendants from French settlers, and had frequently changed masters, as their country was conquered alternately by the English and French. They called themselves neutrals; but it was the determination of the commanders, in this expedition, that they should all be removed and their estates confiscated. Accordingly, about two thousand men, women and children were transported to New England, dispersed into different towns, and incorporated with the inhabitants.

388. *Loss of Fort Oswego.* Although hostilities had commenced in 1754, yet no formal declaration of war was made till May 1756, when it was proclaimed by the British king in the usual form. Lord Loudon was appointed governor of Virginia and commander in chief of the forces in America. Governor Shirley was recalled, and general Abercrombie succeeded him in the command of the forces in the northern colonies. These generals, with additional troops, arrived and proceeded to Albany; but before they were prepared to begin their operations, the garrison at Oswego consisting of fourteen hundred men, had surrendered to the French. This post was very important, as it commanded the communication between Canada, and the Ohio. The campaign closed without any other great event, and the winter was spent in preparations for prosecuting the war with vigor, the next summer.

389. *Military operations in America in* 1757. Great preparations had been made to attack Crown Point, but the plan of operations was changed; and Lord

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Loudon went to join admiral Holborn, who arrived in July, with a squadron of ships to attack Lewisburg, which had been restored to France by the peace of 1748. This plan also was defeated by the previous arrival of a strong squadron of French ships and a large land force. Lord Loudon departed, and in the winter following, went to England; and the English fleet, after being shattered by a violent tempest in September, returned to England. In the mean time the French general, Montcalm, laid seige to fort William Henry on Lake George, and after a brave defense, without any prospect of relief, General Webb, the commanding officer surrendered. Thus the campaign of 1757 ended with disgrace to the British arms; while the French were gaining strength and multiplying their forts on the back of the colonies. These misfortunes were owing to bad management in the British councils, and the want of concert in the colonies, which were governed by different legislatures, and could not be brought to act with union or energy.

390. *Conquest of Cape Breton in* 1758. In 1758, great efforts were made to subdue the French in America. Three armies were employed; one commanded by General Amherst, destined to take Lewisburg; one under General Abercrombie, to act against Crown Point; and a third under General Forbes, to drive the French from the Ohio. A fleet under Admiral Boscawen, and twelve thousand men, under General Amherst, laid seige to Lewisburg; which after a vigorous resistance, surrendered. Three French ships of the line were set on fire by bombs, and burnt in the harbor. Two others were boarded and taken, and forty cannon out of fifty two in the principal bastions, were dismounted, before the besieged consented to capitulate. The inhabitants of the isle were sent to France, and the prisoners to England. Col. Rolls was then dispatched, with a body of troops, to St. Johns, which isle submitted to the arms of Eng-

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land. After the conquest of Canada, in 1760, the fortifications of Lewisburg were utterly demolished and reduced to a heap of rubbish.

391. *Defeat of General Aberbrombie.* The French had erected a Fort at Ticonderoga, at the point of communication between Lake George, South Bay and Lake Champlain. To dispossess them of this important place and of Crown Point, was the object of General Abercrombie, with the main division of the forces, amounting to seven thousand British regulars, and ten thousand colonial troops. This army arrived near Ticonderoga, in July. After disembarking from the batteaus, the troops had to march through woods, and the center column under Lord Howe, a young officer of great worth, met and defeated a detachment of the French forces, retreating from an out post; but this advantage was purchased by the loss of Lord Howe. The main body advanced and attacked the fort, but the French were so well protected by abbattis and a breast work eight feet high, that the British troops could not carry the works. After an action of four hours, during which the troops were exposed to a terrible fire, the general ordered a retreat, having lost eighteen hundred men, and returned to the camp at Lake George.

392. *The taking of Fort Frontenac and Pittsburg.* The ill success at Ticonderoga was in part counterbalanced, by the taking of fort Frontenac on the St. Lawrence, near lake Ontario, by a party of colonial troops under Col. Bradstreet. This fort was garrisoned by a hundred and ten men only; but contained a great number of cannon, mortars, military stores, provisions and goods. Nine armed vessels were also taken. The whole was effected without bloodshed, and the fort demolished. During these transactions General Forbes marched from Philadelphia, with a considerable body of troops, to attack the French fort, Duquesne. After passing the mountains, he detached Col. Bouquet, with two thousand men, to a posi-

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tion fifty miles in advance. This officer sent Major Grant forward with eight hundred men to reconnoiter the fort and country. The detachment met a superior French force, and was defeated with the loss of Major Grant, and three hundred men. But the French not willing to risk a seige, abandoned the fort, and retired down the Ohio. General Forbes took possession and gave it the name of Pittsburg, which the town since bilt continues to bear.

393. *Operations of General Amherst.* In 1759, the efforts of the British and Americans to reduce the French were more successful. General Amherst with the main army, crossed lake George, to lay seige to Ticonderoga; but the French abandoned that post and Crown Point. General Amherst took possession, repaired the fort at Ticonderoga, and leaving a strong garrison in it, proceeded to Crown Point, where he raised a new fort. Here he bilt a sloop of sixteen guns and a large boat for six guns, with a brig. With these and his bateaus he embarked to proceed down the lake, but he was baffled by tempestuous weather. The land forces were compelled to return, but the armed vessels proceeded and drove ashore three of the French vessels. General Amherst spent the winter in completing the fortifications at Crown Point, and in opening roads to the colonies.

394. *Reduction of Niagara.* During these transactions, general Prideaux laid seige to the French fort at Niagara, in the prosecution of which he was killed, and the command devolved on Sir William Johnson. This officer urged the seige, and defeated a party of troops, coming from Detroit to Venango, to the relief of the place. This success hastened the surrender of the fort, which capitulated the last week in July. This was a valuable acquisition, as well as the possession of Crown Point and Ticonderoga.

395. *Victory of General Wolfe, and surrender of Quebec.* The forces destined against Quebec were intrusted to General Wolfe, a young officer, who had

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distinguished himself, the preceding year, at the seige of Lewisburg. The army, amounting to eight thousand men, landed on the isle of Orleans, below Quebec, in June. Quebec stands on a rock, at the confluence of Charles River and the St. Lawrence; it is naturally strong, and was well fortified and defended by a superior force under General Montcalm. General Wolfe had to contend with immense difficulties, and a detachment of his troops attacking the French entrenchments at the falls of Montmorenci, was repulsed with the loss of five hundred men. At length the British troops landed in the night and ascended a steep, craggy cliff, to an elevated place which commanded the town. This compelled the French to hazard a battle, which was fought on the 13th of September; in which General Wolfe was killed, and the French General, Montcalm, mortally wounded; but the French were defeated; and in a few days the town was surrendered to General Townsend upon capitulation.



DEATH OF GENERAL WOLFE.

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396. *Operations at Quebec in* 1760. General Murray, with six thousand troops, was left to garrison Quebec. By means of the rigors of the climate, and a want of fresh provisions, one thousand of these men died, before spring, with the scurvy and two thousand were disabled from duty. Near the close of April, the French troops, which had been collected during the winter, to the number of ten thousand, attacked General Murray, and defeated his small army, with considerable loss. But General Murray retreated to the town, which he bravely defended, against superior numbers, until the arrival of a squadron of ships, and the destruction of the French ships in the river, induced the French commander, Vaudreuil, to abandon the seige.

397. *Final reduction of Canada.* Early in the summer of 1760, General Amherst put in motion his troops, with a view to attack Montreal, the last fortress of consequence remaining in the hands of the French. Advancing from Albany to the lake, he took the French fort at Isle Royal, and proceeded down the St. Lawrence to Montreal, where he was joined by General Murray from Quebec. While preparing to lay seige to the place, Vaudreuil, made offers of capitulation, which were accepted, and the town was surrendered on the 7th of September. A small French squadron, sent with provisions and stores to relieve the troops at Montreal, was destroyed by Captain Byron in the bay of Chaleurs. The inhabitants of Canada submitted and took the oath of allegiance to the British crown. Thus, after a century of wars, massacres, and destruction, committed by the savages, the colonies were secured from ferocious invaders, and Canada, with a valuable trade in furs, came under the British dominion.

398. *Expedition of Col. Montgomery.* While the troops were conquering Canada, the Cherokees, a powerful tribe of savages, were committing outrages on the frontiers of Virginia and Carolina. Governor

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Lyttleton of South Carolina, with a body of colonial troops, entered the country and obliged the Indians to sue for peace, which was granted. But the savages violated the treaty and attempted to surprise a fort on the frontiers of Carolina. General Amherst, on application, sent Col. Montgomery, with twelve hundred troops, to protect the southern colonies. This officer penetrated into the heart of the Cherokee country, plundering and destroying all the villages and magazines of corn. In revenge, the savages beseiged fort Loudon, on the confines of Virginia; the garrison, after being reduced to extreme distress, capitulated; but on their march towards Carolina, a body of savages fell upon the party and murdered five and twenty of them, with all the officers, except Captain Stuart.

399. *Progress and termination of this War.* Col. Montgomery being obliged by his orders to return to Canada, the Carolinians were alarmed for the safety of the colony, and prevailed with him to leave four companies of men for their defense. Canada being entirely subdued, General Amherst sent Col. Grant, with a body of troops, who landed at Charleston early in 1761. These troops, being joined by a regiment of colonial forces under Col. Middleton, undertook an expedition into the Cherokee country; in which they defeated the savages, with the loss of fifty or sixty of their own men. After destroying fourteen Indian towns, with the corn and stores, the troops repaired to fort Prince George for rest and refreshment. In a few days after, several chiefs of the Indians arrived with proposals of peace, which were gladly received and peace concluded.

400. *Conclusion of the War in Europe, and the peace of Paris.* The reduction of Canada, and the expulsion of the French from the Ohio, put an end to important military operations in America. The great purpose of the war, which was to expel or cripple the power of the French, on the western frontiers,

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was happily accomplished. In Europe, the war continued to rage, and in the West Indies, the British, aided by colonial troops, took Havanna from the Spaniards in 1762; an expedition in which multitudes of men fell victims to the bilious plague. But on the 10th of February, 1763, a definitive treaty of peace was signed at Paris, by which the French king ceded Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, and Canada to the British king, and the middle of the Mississippi, from its source to the river Ibberville, and the middle of that river to the sea, was made the boundary between the British and French dominions in America. Spain ceded to Great Britain, Florida and all her possessions to the east of the Mississippi. Such was the state of the European possessions in America, at the commencement of the revolution.

QUESTIONS.

374. Why did the expedition against Canada under Sir William Phips fail?

375. Who attempted to bring Connecticut under New York, and what was the result?

376. Who took possession of Nova Scotia in 1690?

377. What events took place in the war in Queen Ann's reign?

378. What expedition was planned against Canada?

379. What attempt was planned against Canada in 1711, and what was the result?

380. When and how was Lewisburg taken?

381. What great expedition was planned by the French to recover Cape Breton, and what the event?

382. What plan was formed in 1754 to secure the colonies?

383. What was the result of the plan?

384. What occasioned the war of 1754? When and in what manner did Gen. Washington commence his military career?

385. Where was Gen. Braddock defeated?

386. Who planned to take Crown Point?

387. When and by whom was Nova Scotia conquered? What was done with the inhabitants?

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388. Who were the commanders of the English forces in America in 1756?

389. What were the military operations in 1757?

390. When and by whom was Cape Breton retaken?

391. What great defeat did the English suffer under Gen. Aberbrombie?

392. Who took fort Duquesne, and gave name to Pittsburg?

393. Who took Ticonderoga and Crown Point in 1759?

394. Who took the fort at Niagara?

395. Who defeated the French before Quebec, and was killed?

397. Who reduced Canada in 1760?

398. Who defeated the Indians in Carolina?

399. Who defeated the Cherokees?

400. What put an end to military operations in the colonies? When was peace between England and France signed?

SECTION XI.

BILLS OF CREDIT.

401. *History of Paper Money.* After the year 1660, while the people of America were subject to the crown of Great Britain, their commerce was entirely regulated by acts of parliament, which limited and restrained the trade of the colonies principally to British ports. By this means the colonies were deprived of the benefit of many of the best markets for their produce; and the enterprising spirit of the inhabitants was checked, or rendered subservient to the politic views of the parent state. In consequence of these disadvantages, the balance of trade was usually against the colonies; that is, they imported goods to a greater value than they exported; and the difference was paid in specie, as long as it could be procured. This unprofitable trade exhausted the colonies of money, to a distressing degree; and when

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the public exigencies called for extraordinary taxes, the people could not pay them in cash. For a long period, taxes were paid in produce, which was deposited in public stores and sold to raise money. But this was very troublesome and expensive; and the colonies adopted the plan of issuing bills of credit for a medium of trade, in lieu of specie.

402. *First emission of bills of credit in Massachusetts.* The colony of Massachusetts, in 1652 coined, into small pieces, a quantity of silver bullion taken from the Spaniards, or received from the West Indies, in the course of trade. The pieces bore the figure of a pine tree, and circulated in New England. This practice continued more than thirty years, and this was the only instance of a mint in the colonies. But this coinage extended only to small change, and could not supply the requisite cash for the colony. The unfortunate expedition against Quebec in 1690, had created a considerable debt against Massachusetts which there was no money in the treasury to pay. When the soldiers returned, they clamored for their wages; a tax was laid to raise the money; but to prevent a mutiny, the colony issued bills of credit which were to be received in payment of the tax. With these the soldiers were paid; the value of them sunk immediately one third; but as the bills were receivable on the tax, as the time of payment approached, they gradually appreciated.

403. *Subsequent Emissions of Paper Money.* To defray the expenses of another expedition against Quebec in 1711, Massachusetts issued a large sum in bills of credit, and in 1714 and 1716 no less than the value of a half million of dollars. Besides these sums, the colony had, from time to time, issued bills to pay the expenses of government, and neglected to redeem the bills, until their depreciation, and its consequent evils had alarmed the crown, and a royal order had been sent to the governor to restrain all further emissions, until the bills extant should be re-

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deemed. Many schemes were projected to preserve the value of the bills; some part of them were lent to individuals on security; others rested on the faith of government, which was pledged to redeem them; in one case a private company was formed to support their declining credit. But all expedients failed, and in 1749, when the sums in circulation, amounted to more than seven millions of dollars, the value had sunk to about one twelfth of the value of specie.

404. *The Redemption of the Massachusetts Bills.* The honorable efforts of Massachusetts in the conquest of Lewisburg, had induced the parliament of Great Britain, to grant one hundred and eighty thousand pounds sterling, to indemnify that colony for her expenses. While the bill for this grant was depending the legislature of Massachusetts passed an act that, with the specie which was expected from England, the bills of credit should be purchased, at the rate of fifty shillings in paper for an ounce of silver, or nearly seven and a half for one. This act was fortunately carried into effect, though much against popular clamor, and thus was redeemed the largest part of the paper currency. The remainder was directed to be paid into the treasury upon taxes, and an end was put to a multitude of frauds, and numberless public evils, arising from the circulation of a depreciated currency.

405. *Paper Currency of South Carolina.* In 1702, Governor Moore of South Carolina, rashly undertook an expedition against St. Augustine, a Spanish town in East Florida; the plan was disconcerted by the arrival of two Spanish ships and abandoned, in a cowardly manner. As the colony then did not contain more than seven or eight thousand white people, the expenses of the expedition were too considerable to be defrayed by an ordinary tax; and the colony issued bills of credit for the purpose. This was the first experiment. As the sum was not large, the bills answered a good purpose, and

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for some years retained their value. But the war against the Tuscaroras and other savages in 1712, creating another heavy debt, the colony issued forty thousand pounds, which was lent on landed or personal security and made payable into the treasury in ten installments of four thousand pounds each. This sum was so large that the value speedily sunk one half, and ultimately to one seventh. The depreciation caused great uneasiness; the planters paying their debts to their creditors and the merchants, in a medium of less value than gold and silver. The rate of exchange remained at seven for one, until measures were taken to redeem the bills.

406. *Bills of Credit in New York and Pennsylvania.* The first issuing of paper currency in New York, was in 1709, and the occasion was the great expense of the fruitless preparations for attacking Canada, in that year. The sums first issued were not large, and such regulations were adopted for redeeming the paper, as to prevent, in a great measure, the evils of depreciation. Considerable sums were afterwards emitted, and gradually called into the treasury and canceled. In 1722, Pennsylvania issued her first paper currency, amounting to fifteen thousand pounds; by subsequent emissions the sum was augmented to eighty thousand pounds, which sum was extant in 1740. This paper was made a legal tender; so that creditors were obliged to take it as gold and silver. As it suffered some depreciation, the proprietaries were alarmed for fear they should receive their rents in a depreciated medium, and opposed the emission of paper until the assembly had made them a grant to secure to them the full value of their rents in sterling money.

407. *General Remarks on Bills of Credit.* All the colonies sooner or later issued bills of credit to supply the place of specie, which was scarce and not sufficient for a current medium. In those colonies where the paper was immediately called in by taxes

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and duties, it depreciated but little; in others, it sunk to a low value, and gave debtors an opportunity to defraud their creditors, by paying them in a depreciated currency. As the paper could not circulate in foreign countries, it would not answer for a remittance for goods imported; merchants of course preferred specie to paper, and silver rose in value. In short, a paper currency while the country was rapidly settling, and its trade restricted. was very useful in many respects; but it also produced great evils. It gave rise to unceasing jealousy and contentions, between the royal and proprietary governors and the assemblies of the colonies; for the governors strenuously opposed the issuing of paper. Had the colonies been indulged in a free trade, they would have had gold and silver enough; but an unrestrained commerce could not be enjoyed, until the colonies became independent.

408. *Origin of the different Rates of Coin in the Colonies.* For almost a century after the settlement of America, the colonies rated coins in sterling money, as in Great Britain. But the scarcity of money finally called for a remedy, and some of the colonies attempted to remove the difficulty, by passing laws to raise the nominal value of foreign coins. This occasioned a royal proclamation, in the sixth year of Queen Ann, A. D. 1708, which fixed the current nominal value of coins in the colonies, at one fourth above the nominal value in sterling money; so that a dollar, which was four shillings and sixpence sterling, passed for six shillings. In New England and Virginia, this became and still remains the current denomination. But in some of the colonies, the depreciation of their paper currency, the scarcity of money, and the current rate of exchange between paper and specie, raised the nominal value of silver and gold still higher. In New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Maryland, the value of the dollar was established and continues at seven shillings and sixpence; in

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New York and North Carolina, at eight shillings. *In* South Carolina and Georgia, it rose only to four and eight pence; or two pence in the dollar above the sterling value. But these are differences merely *in* name, for the real value is the same in all the states; in other words the pound and the shilling differ in value, but not the dollar.

QUESTIONS.

401. How was the trade of the colonies restrained, while under the British crown? What rendered it necessary to emit bills of credit?

402. What coin was made in Massachusetts? What colony first emitted bills of credit?

403. How much paper was issued by Massachusetts, and how much did it depreciate?

404. How were the bills of credit redeemed?

405. When and why were bills of credit issued in South Carolina, and what was the effect?

406. When did New York, and when did Pennsylvania first issue paper currency?

407. Why are bills of credit less valuable for currency than coin?

408. How did the different rates of coin in the colonies originate?

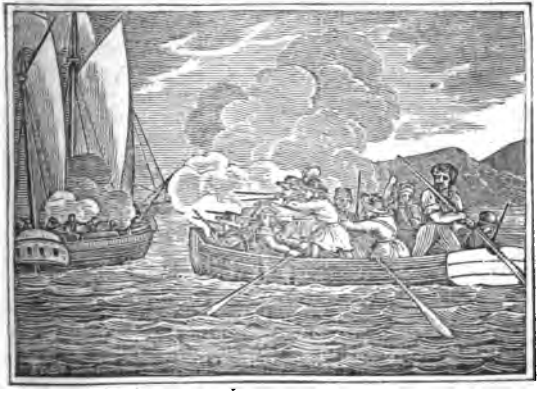
SECTION XII.

PIRACY.

409. *Piracy in the American Seas.* In the two first centuries, after the Spaniards settled in America, the land and the sea were infested by pirates and freebooters, to a degree never before known in the civilized world. These robbers had their origin among some miserable fugitives of the French nation, who had begun a plantation at St. Kitts, and being dispossessed by the Spaniards, fled to the northern part of Hispaniola, now Hayti. There they lived at

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first by hunting swine and cattle which abounded in the mountains, and there acquired the name of *bucaneers* from the practice of drying and preserving their beef and pork, called in French, *boucaner*. After living some time in this manner, some of them became cultivators; others betook themselves to piracy. Many of them settled on the isle, Tortuga, near the coast of Hispaniola; and being accustomed to an unrestrained equality, they lived in a state of democracy, every man being the master of his own family; the commander of a boat or ship was liable to be discarded by the crew, and in a division of the plunder, he had only a single share like a private, unless given to him as a gratuity.



ATTACK OF THE BUCANEERS.

410. *Ravages of the Bucaneers.* These lawless freebooters fortified themselves in Tortuga; and forming themselves into companies, sallied forth in quest of plunder by sea and land. They had a special antipathy to the Spaniards, and when they found

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a ship alone they boldly grappled and boarded her; usually putting all the crews to death. When loaded with plunder, they returned and divided it with the most scrupulous justice; then spent their time in all kinds of vice and debauchery, until their booty was expended. Enjoying a perfect state of liberty and equality, there was no law to restrain their excesses, and when their plunder was gone, they were reduced to want and misery. They then went forth to seek more plunder, and pillage honest and industrious men. At length their number was so increased by desperate fellows from France, Holland and England, that they became formidable to all Spanish America. They composed an army of twelve hundred men, and attacked several Spanish towns on the continent, murdering the people, and plundering the houses. In 1697, they took Carthagena, and effects to the value of seven or eight millions of dollars; but on their return, they met a fleet of Dutch and English ships, which took and sunk a number of theirs. This gave them a check from which they never recovered. They were hunted by the nations of Europe, and partly by force and partly by encouragements to cultivation, this nest of villains was destroyed.

411. *Piracies on the American Coast.* The spirit of piracy extended in a greater or less degree to the East Indies, and to the North American colonies. About the year 1699, one Bradish a boatswain's mate, in an English ship bound to India, in an illegal voyage, conspired with the crew, left the captain on an isle, and turned pirate. Coming to America to deposit his spoil, Bradish was taken, sent prisoner to England and executed. One Kidd was still more notorious. This man was master of a vessel and sailed from New York, where he had a family. Being in London, he was selected upon recommendation, to command a ship fitted out for the express purpose of suppressing piracies in India. But he turned pirate

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himself, sailed to India and there began the practice of robbing. Returning to America, he landed and appeared at Boston, where he was taken, sent to England, and executed. The trade of Carolina suffered greatly by a nest of pirates settled at New Providence which became a receptacle of vagabonds, after the proprietors of Carolina had released their right to the Bahamas to a company of merchants. The gulf of Florida was at their command, and the trade to the West Indies was almost ruined. The ministry in England charged the colonies with harboring those lawless rascals; but without foundation. After many years, and great exertions, the seas were cleared of freebooters.

QUESTIONS.

409. When were the American seas infested with pirates? Who were the first pirates?

409. 410. Who were the Bucaneers? How did they live?

410. What ravages did the pirates commit, and how were they subdued?

411. Who was the noted pirate on our coast, and what was his fate?

SECTION XIII.

DISEASES & REMARKABLE EVENTS.

412. *Diseases that afflicted the Colonies and other remarkable Events.* The first settlers in America had to contend with hardships, scarcity of provisions, a degree of cold in winter and heat in summer, which they had not experienced in Europe, and with the diseases of the country, to which were added such as arose from their wants and toil. In 1620, half of the Plymouth settlers died, and in 1630, the colony of Massachusetts lost more than one hundred, by fevers

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and the scurvy. In 1633, the colony of Plymouth lost twenty of its inhabitants, by an epidemic pestilential fever. In 1635, the mortality in Virginia, by the accounts then received in New England, extended to eighteen hundred persons. On the first of June 1638, was a severe convulsion of the earth; called the great earthquake. This was succeeded by a general prevalence of the small box and fevers, on which account, a general fast was observed in December. Shocks of the earth were repeated at times, till December, when they were frequent. Two tremendous storms happened, the same year, one in August and the other in December, in which the tide rose fourteen feet above spring tides, at Narraganset, and flowed twice in six hours. Another tempest equally severe occurred on the 16th of March, old style, in 1639, and such a rain that the Connecticut rose twenty feet above the meadows.

413. *Continuation of remarkable Events.* On the fifth of March 1643, was another violent earthquake in New England; but no damage was sustained. The preceding summer had been wet and cold; crops of corn were indifferent; English grain had suffered in an unusual degree, by wild pigeons; and in winter the barns were infested by such numbers of mice, as were never before known. These animals were so numerous as to eat the bark of the fruit trees, about the roots, under the snow. These causes occasioned a dearth, and many families, their corn being exhausted in April, were compelled to live on clams and fish. In 1647 happened the first influenza mentioned in the annals of America. It extended to the West Indies, where it was immediately followed by a malignant fever so fatal and infectious as to be called the plague. In Barbadoes and St. Kitts, it swept away five or six thousand people; siezing first the most hale, robust men. This is the first distinct account of the epidemic yellow fever mentioned in our histories. A

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pestilential fever prevailed in Hartford, the same year, of which died the Rev. Mr. Hooker.

414. *Continuation of remarkable Events.* A slight earthquake was felt in New England in October 1653. Some general sickness prevailed in Massachusetts; for in the spring of the next year, a fast was appointed in Connecticut, for which one reason assigned, in the proclamation was "the mortality which had been among the people of Massachusetts." In 1655, another influenza spread over New England. In 1658 epidemic disease again prevailed, on which account, and the scarcity of grain and intemperate season, a fast was observed in Connecticut. In 1656 the disease called rattles, hives, or croup first appeared in the colonies. In 1662 happened in New England, an earthquake, a severe drouth, and epidemic disease; on the abatement of which our pious ancestors kept a day of thanksgiving. In 1668, a malignant sickness prevailed in New York and occasioned the appointment of a fast in September. In 1677 the small pox raged in Charlestown, in Massachusetts, with the mortality of the plague: and in the following year it prevailed in Boston.

415. *Continuation of remarkable Events.* In 1683, great sickness prevailed, and the people sought the throne of grace by a general fast. During the winter, a fever so general and so fatal prevailed in Springfield in Massachusetts, that the public worship on Sundays was suspended. A similar disease afflicted the same town in 1711, in 1733 and 1761. It raged at Hartford in 1717. Fairfield suffered equally by a malignant fever, in 1698 after the influenza; Waterbury in 1713; Bethlem in 1750 and 1760. East Haven was repeatedly visited, and stripped of a great part of its most robust men. The last time, was in 1761. This violent fever prevailed in many other places, with great mortality. In 1702, New York was sorely visited with a pestilential fever; almost all the patients died. Philadelphia and Charleston,

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in South Carolina, suffered by a like disease in 1699. On the 29th of October 1727 occured an earthquake in New England, as violent as any of the former ones. Slighter shocks are not infrequent. On the 18th of November 1755, happened a shock of similar violence but no injury was sustained.

416. *Continuation of Remarkable Events.* The influenza prevailed in 1733, and spread over the world. In 1735 commenced the scarlet fever, or malignant sore throat, at Kingston, an inland town in New Hampshire, and visited most parts of America, in that and the following year. This was its first appearance in America, as far as could be recollected. Before that period, the usual form of disease in the throat, was that of a quinsy, which was often malignant and fatal. From the year 1735 to 1800, the malignant sore throat was epidemic, six times, in the northern states. The influenza from 1732 to 1800 prevailed nine times as an epidemic. The long fever, so called because it continued thirty or forty days, was formerly very common in New-England.

417. *Unusual Seasons.* The seasons in all countries, in the temperate climates, are very variable. The winter of 1633—4 was mild; the wind mostly from the southward, with little snow till February, and no great frost. That was followed by cold winters, and in 1637 or 8, the winter was noted as unusually severe; the snow lay about four feet deep from the middle of November to the first week in April. But the winter of 1641—2 was of the severest kind; Boston Bay was a bridge of ice as far as the eye could see; and the Chesapeak also was frozen. The Indians told our ancestors that such a winter had not been in forty years. A similar winter occurred in 1697—8. The fourteenth day of December O. S. 1709 was supposed to be the coldest day that had been known in America. In February 1717 fell the greatest snow ever known in this, or perhaps any country. It covered the lower doors of houses, so

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that people were obliged to step out of their chamber windows on snow shoes. There was a terrible tempest. Eleven hundred sheep, belonging to one man, perished. One flock of a hundred, was dug out of a snow drift on Fisher's island, where they had been buried to the depth of sixteen feet. This was twenty eight days after the storm, when two of them were found alive, having subsisted on the wool of the others, and they sustained no injury.

418. *Continuation of Unusual Seasons.* A memorable tempest is recorded to have happened on the 24th of February 1723, which raised the tide several feet above the usual spring tides, and did incredible damage on the eastern shore of New England. The winter of 1737—8 was extremely severe; but far less severe than that which closed the year 1740. A similar winter followed the summer of 1779—80, when all the rivers and bays, even the Chesapeak, and Long Island Sound were converted into bridges of ice. The severe cold was of three months duration, and the snow from three to four feet deep. Mild winters also occur frequently—as in 1755 and 6—1774—5—1794—5—and 1801—2 when there was little frost and snow.

419. *Days of unusual Obscurity or Darkness.* Historians have mentioned many instances of extreme darkness, in the day time, and in some cases, this obscurity has lasted several days. Instances happened in Europe, in the years 252, 746 and 775. The first instance mentioned in our annals was on the 21st of October 1716; the second on the 9th of August 1732. A similar obscurity happened in Canada and on the Lakes, on the 19th of October 1762; and on three different days in October 1785. On the 19th of May, 1780, a memorable darkness was spread over all the northern states. The obscurity was occasioned by a thick vapor or cloud, tinged with a yellow color or faint red, and a thin coat of dust was deposited on white substances. In these instances, the obscurity

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was so great as to render candles or lamps necessary at noon day. The darkness in Canada was followed by squalls of wind, severe thunder and in one instance by a meteor or fire ball. So ignorant were most people of this phenomenon, that many were excessively frightened; although it had occurred three times at least within the period of sixty five years.

420. *Northern Lights.* From the earliest times, we have some imperfect accounts of lights in the sky; and superstition has represented them as the forerunner of bloody wars and other calamities. Sometimes historians speak of them as troops of men, armed and rushing to battle. Such representations are the effusions of weak and timid minds; these lights and all others in the atmosphere proceeding from natural causes, are no more the harbingers of evil than a shower of rain or a blast of wind. For about three hundred years past, our accounts of the northern lights, are tolerably correct. There was a discontinuance of them eighty or ninety years, anterior to 1707, when a small light was seen by persons in Europe. But they did not reappear in full splendor, till the year 1716, when they were observed in England. Their first appearance in America was December 11, 1719, when they were remarkably bright, and as people in general had never heard of such a phenomenon, they were extremely alarmed, with the apprehension of the approach of the final judgment. All amusements, all business, and even sleep was interrupted, for want of a little knowledge of history. From 1719 to 1790, these lights were frequent, when they again disappeared, for a long period.

421. *Diseases among the Brutes.* The brutes have at times pestilential diseases which sweep them away in multitudes. A plague among cattle destroyed a great part of the species in Germany about the year 800. The same happened in Italy and Germany, in 1713, among cattle and horses. A like mortality among cattle happened in Holland and some parts of

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England, in 1751. Fortunately no similar plague among useful animals has ever happened in America; although at times, there has been considerable mortality among horses and cattle. In 1514, the cats in Europe perished by a pestilential disease, as they did lately in Europe and America, in 1797. In 1763, dogs sheeps, mules, poultry, swine and horses, in several countries of Europe, were swept away by unusual diseases. In 1764, the blue fish all perished or abandoned the shores of Nantucket, where they had always been in great plenty. In 1775 the oysters at Wellfleet, on Cape Cod, all perished, and have never since grown on the same banks. In 1788, the cod fish on the grand bank of Newfoundland were mostly thin and ill flavored. In 1789, the haddock on the coast of Norway, mostly or all died, and floating on the surface, covered many leagues of water. In 1799, the small fish on the coast of North Carolinia shared a like fate. At times, oysters are found to be watery, sickly and ill flavored; dogs, wolves and foxes are affected with madness, and wild fowls perish by epidemic diseases.

QUESTIONS.

412. What were the principal diseases that affected the first settlers?

412, 413, 414. When were the principal earthquakes?

413. When was the first influenza noticed?

414, 416. When did the croup or rattles first appear, and when the malignant sore throat?

417, 418. In what years were there severe winters?

419. In what years was there an unusual darkness?

420. When were northern lights first seen in New-England?

421. When was there unusual mortality of fish on the American coast?

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SECTION XIV.

WAR OF THE REVOLUTION.

422. *Remote causes of the Revolution.* The first planters of New England were all dissenters from the church of England, who declined to conform to its ritual and ceremonies, and by their opposition, called down upon their heads the vengeance of archbishop Laud. To get rid of such uneasy subjects, was rather to be desired, than dreaded, by the king and court. But within a few years, the numerous emigrations from England alarmed the government, and orders were issued to stop the sailing of ships bound to America. These orders however were temporary, and most or all those men departed from England, who wished to settle in a country, where they might be exempt from arbitrary government. As the plantations increased, and became respectable, the court of England began to be alarmed with the apprehension, that the colonies would become wholly independent of the parent state.

423. *Measures to prevent the independence of the Colonies.* With a view to secure the dominion of England over the colonies, in ecclesiastical as well as civil affairs, king Charles the first granted a commission, dated April 10, 1634, by which he empowered the two archbishops, with certain other persons, to superintend the colonies, to erect courts, civil and ecclesiastical, to remove governors for causes which to them should seem meet, to inquire into the conduct of all officers, to punish offenses with fines and imprisonment, to make and repeal laws and revoke charters. This extraordinary commission excited great alarm in the infant colonies, but the inhabitants determined to resist the execution of it; and on receiving intelligence that a governor, appointed by the commissioners, would proceed to America, the gov-

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ernment of Massachusetts hastened the fortifications in Boston harbor. It does not appear that any attempt was made to enforce this commission.

424. *Colonies under Charles the first and Commonwealth.* During the reign of Charles the first, the colonies were frequently alarmed with the report of some act of the English government, to abridge their freedom. Their enemies represented the people as aiming at an entire independence, and a plan was devised and nearly matured, to deprive the colonies of their charters, and place over them a general governor. Probably the disputes and civil war in England, were among the causes which frustrated that plan. After king Charles was beheaded, and the government of England assumed the shape of a commonwealth, the colonies were relieved from their apprehensions, and the Protector, Cromwell, appeared to favor the views and interests of the settlers in America. Under his administration however, the parliament passed an act for encouraging the commerce of England, which was the ground work of the famous Navigation Act in 1660, which restrained the trade of the colonies, and was the means of drying up the sources of their prosperity.

425. *State of the Colonies under Charles the second.* Upon the restoration of the monarchy in England, the colonies submitted, and sent addresses, congratulating the king on his accession to the throne. Connecticut and Rhode Island obtained charters with ample privileges, and so well pleased was the king with the respectful manner in which they treated him, that he wrote letters, giving most flattering assurances that he would protect the colonies, in all their chartered rights. He also appointed commissioners to examine the state of the colonies, and decide controversies between them. The king required that the laws derogatory to the crown should be repealed; that free liberty should be given to use the common prayer, and the service of the church of England;

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that all persons of honest lives, should be admitted to the sacrament, and their children to baptism; and that magistrates should be chosen and freemen admitted, without regard to opinions and professions of religion. The king required also that every person in the plantations should take the oath of allegiance to his majesty. These requisitions gave the colonies some alarm, and indicated that the king was apprehensive the people intended to become independent. The union of the four colonies was regarded by the crown with an eye of jealousy, but the people assured the king's agents, that it was not intended for the purpose of casting off a dependence on England.

426. *Opposition to the Navigation Act.* No measure of the English court or parliament excited more discontent, or was resisted with more firmness, by the first settlers than the law for regulating the trade of England and the colonies, first enacted by the parliament, in 1651, during the administration of Cromwell, and in 1660, re-enacted by the king and parliament with considerable additions. By this act, all trade with England and the colonies was restricted to English ships, the masters of which and three fourths at least of the seamen, were to be English; and the colonies were prohibited from shipping many of their most valuable articles to any ports, but to England, where they were to be landed, before they could be sent to market in any other country. This regulation threw the advantages of the colonial trade into the hands of the English; but deprived the colonies of their best markets. The colonies opposed the execution of it many years; at length, in 1680, governor Leet of Connecticut submitted, and took the oath required. But Massachusetts was more obstinate, and her opposition was one of the reasons for vacating her charter. She finally submitted to the regulations, by passing a law requiring them to be observed, but denied the right of parliament to bind the colonies to observe them.

427. *Agency of Randolph.* The king, determined

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to enforce the Navigation Act, sent over Edward Randolph, with powers to inspect the conduct of the colonies, to make seizures for breaches of the act, and in short, to be a common informer. This man made it his business to collect charges against the colonies, and return to England to excite the jealousy of the English government. In this manner, the way was prepared for annulling the charters of the colonies, and the appointment of Sir Edmund Andross, as governor general over New England and New York. This was the consequence of a determination in the king and ministry to check and subdue the growing spirit of independence in the colonies; but Andross overacted his part; and his tyrannical proceedings only served to alienate the people's affections from the parent state, and prepared the way for that independence which the king dreaded.

428. *Colonies under King William and Queen Ann.* The colonies under Charles and James, were despoiled of their charters, and they suffered the tyranny of Andross with a spirit of just indignation. King William was more favorable to the colonies; Connecticut resumed her old charter, and Massachusetts obtained a new one, in which the king retained the power of appointing the governor, and the governor was vested with the power of negativing the choice of councilors, made by the house of representatives. It was supposed that this power in the king would secure a predominant influence to the crown over the legislature and colony. But it had the contrary effect, and created a fruitful source of animosity between the two branches of the legislature, which ended only with the revolution. The governor and council were the advocates for extension of royal perogative; the house of representatives was confided in, as the guardian of the rights of the people. In queen Ann's reign a new attempt was made to abolish the colony charters, and place the appointment of a general governor in the crown, but it was frustrated.

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429. *Controversies in the Colony of New York.* The government of New York, like that of Massachusetts, was what was called a royal government; the king appointed the governor, who had the power of approving the speaker of the house of representatives. But in this kind of government the assembly was bound to provide the governor with his salary. This was an unceasing source of discord. When a good understanding did not subsist between the governor and the assembly, which often happened, the assembly would withhold a grant of the governor's salary, to compel him to give his assent to some favorite bill of theirs; the governor, on the other hand, if he wished to obtain a large grant, or to carry some favorite point, would withhold his assent to their favorite bills, until they had complied with his wishes.

430. *Controversies in Pennsylvania.* By the charter of Pennsylvania, the proprietary and his heirs and assigns, were governors of the province; the council and assembly were to be chosen by the freemen. But in sales of land, the proprietary not only took purchase money, but reserved an annual quit-rent, with the pretext of furnishing the means of supporting the government with dignity. The proprietary himself seldom resided in America, but delegated a substitute to act in the capacity of president or governor, who had a treble vote in enacting laws. In a few years, controversies arose between the governor and the assembly; and the governor prevailed on certain members to withdraw from the house, to prevent the passing of laws disagreeable to him. This the assembly voted to be treachery. In short, that province was distracted by disputes between the governor and assembly, respecting supplies of money, salaries, quit-rents, paper currency, and other matters, from the first settlement to the revolution. A history of these dissentions, written by Dr. Franklin, forms a large volume.

431. *Controversies in Carolina.* By the original

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constitution of Carolina, the governor and principal civil officers were appointed or approved by the proprietors, in the Palatine's court in England. As early as the year 1687 a controversy arose between governor Colleton and the house of assembly, respecting the tenure of lands and the payment of quit-rents. The governor demanded the rent, although not one acre of land in a thousand was cultivated; the payment proved burdensome; and the people declined it. Hence arose a contention, which did not end, till the assembly renounced the authority of the governor, and held assemblies in opposition to him. This ferment subsided, in a degree, under the governors Ludwell and Archdale. But the interest of the proprietors, who urged for rents, and attempted to restrain the authority of the people, by repealing all laws that enlarged the powers of the assembly or abridged their own, was so repugnant to the wishes and demands of the colony, that it was impossible to preserve harmony, and in 1719 the people revolted.

432. *Dissolution of the Proprietors' Charter.* The people gave notice to governor Johnson of their intention to throw off the yoke of the proprietors, elected deputies to the assembly, which was held in opposition to the governor's authority; and notwithstanding his popularity and remonstrances, the assembly openly declared their intention to renounce the authority of the proprietors, and submit to the crown. The governor attempted to dissolve the assembly, but they ordered the proclamation to be torn from the marshal's hand. They proceeded to elect James Moore their governor, and he was proclaimed with applauses. An account of these proceedings being transmitted to England, the Carolinians had a hearing before the council of regents, (the king being in Hanover) who decided that the proprietors had done acts that amounted to a forfeiture of their charter, which was accordingly annulled in 1720, and Carrolina taken under royal government. The crown

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in 1728, purchased the property of seven of the owners, for seventeen thousand, five hundred pounds.

433. *General Remarks on the foregoing Facts.* From the history of the colonies, it appears that the principles of their opposition to the parent state, were mostly planted in the minds of the first settlers, or in their primitive constitutions of government. In New-England, an enmity to the ecclesiastical power of the English church naturally fostered an enmity to monarchy; and this enmity was increased by repeated attempts of the crown to establish its power and prerogatives in the colonies. This enmity gradually matured into habitual and systematized opposition, which was greatly encouraged and confirmed by the speculations on government found in the writings of Locke, Sidney and others. The authority of these authors was re-enforced by the parliamentary discussions on royal prerogative and popular liberty, at the revolution in England. In the proprietary and royal governments, the endless contentions between the governors and assemblies, encouraged a spirit of investigation into the extent of the power of the crown, and formed the principle of opposition into habit. The open rupture therefore between Great Britian and the colonies, was not the sudden effect of a tumultuous opposition to a particular act of parliament, but the effect of hostile principles and habits which had grown out of a long series of events, and which a few measures of the British government ripened into action.

434. *Immediate Causes of the Revolution.* The proceedings of the British parliament, which manifested a settled determination to keep America subject to the crown, and subservient to the interests of Great Britain, were the direct causes of an opposition to her claims, which ended in an appeal to arms. As early as 1750, an act was passed in parliament, to encourage the exportation of iron in pigs and bars, from America to London; and to prevent the erecting of

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any mill in the colonies for slitting or rolling iron, or any plating forge, or furnace for making steel. The purpose of the British government was to check the growth of manufactures in the colonies, and to compel them to export their iron, and import the manufactures of England. This arbitrary law was enforced, to the destruction of some machines of the kinds mentioned, and the dissatisfaction of the colonies.

435. *Stamp Act.* After the peace of 1763, the British parliament formed a plan of raising a revenue by taxing the colonies. The pretext for it was, to obtain indemnification for the great expenses of Great Britain in defending the colonies, and to enable her to discharge the debt incurred in the preceding war. But a more influential motive, was to check the increasing spirit of opposition, which, it was apprehended, would, in time, mature into a revolt; the parliament, therefore, determined to assert its sovreignty and establish the immediate exercise of authority over the colonies. For this purpose, an act was passed for laying a duty on all paper, vellum or parchment, used in America, and declaring all writings on unstamped materials to be null and void. This act received the royal assent on the 22d, of March, 1765.

436. *Reception of the Stamp Act in America.* When the news of the stamp act reached the colonies, the people every where manifested alarm, and a determination to oppose its execution. The assembly of Virginia first declared its opposition to the act, by a number of spirited resolves; but Massachusetts took the lead in this important crisis, and maintained it in every stage of the subsequent revolution. In all the colonies however, the determined spirit of resistance prevented the execution of the act. The stamp-masters were burnt in effigy, and popular tumults succeeded. In Boston, the friends of the British measures, and the crown officers were insulted; their houses demolished; and among other damages, the populace destroyed a valuable collection of original pa-

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pers, concerning the history of the colonies, which governor Hutchinson had made, and intended to publish. This loss was irreparable. To render the opposition complete, the merchants associated, and agreed to a resolution not to import any more goods from Great Britain, until the stamp law should be repealed.

437. *Principles on which the Parliament and the Colonies acted.* The British parliament, previous to the repeal of the stamp law, passed an act declaring that "they had, and of right ought to have, power to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever." They alledged that the colonies were planted by their care, nourished by their indulgence, and protected by their arms, and their money; and therefore the colonies owed allegiance, subjection and gratitude to the parent state. The colonies denied very justly that they were planted by the British government. Not one of them was settled at the expense of the crown; but with a vast expense of individuals, and with hardships and sufferings beyond description or credibility. Nor did the government of England expend any money or furnish any force for protecting the colonies, for sixty years after the settlement of Plymouth. On the other hand, the government neglected the colonies, while feeble and poor; and did not extend a protecting arm, until the colonies had conquered and expelled several Indian tribes; had overcome the difficulties of settlement; had acquired a good degree of strength, and began to have a valuable commerce. Then the government of England lent assistance to defend the colonies, and secure to herself a beneficial trade.

438. *Opinions of British Statesmen.* When the act for imposing stamp duties was under discussion in Parliament, Mr. Townshend, a ministerialist, demanded whether the American children, planted by British care, nourished by their indulgence, and protected by the arms of the mother country, would grudge

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to contribute their mite to relieve that country from its load of debt? Col. Barre, a friend of the colonies, replied; 'Children planted by your care?' No: your *oppression* planted them in America. They fled from your tyranny, into an uncultivated land, where they were exposed to innumerable hardships, and the most terrible cruelties of savages. Yet actuated by true principles of English liberty, they sustained their sufferings with patience, rejoicing to be free from the tyranny of those who ought to have been their friends. 'They nourished by your indulgence!' No: they grew by your neglect. When you began to care about them, your care was exercised in sending persons to rule over them, who were deputies of some deputy sent to spy out their liberty, misrepresent their actions, and prey upon their substance. 'They protected by your arms!' They nobly took arms to defend your territories; their valor on their frontiers, drenched in blood, has yielded its savings to your emolument. I know the people of America; they are as loyal subjects as any in the kings dominions; but they are jealous of their rights and liberties; and will vindicate them, if violated.

439. *Grounds on which the Colonies opposed the Stamp Act.* The colonies always acknowledged themselves subjects of the crown of Great Britain, until the declaration of Independance; and were most loyal and affectionate subjects, until the parliament asserted the right of laying internal taxes on them, without admitting them to a share of representation. The principle asserted by the friends of liberty in parliament, that "taxation and representation are inseparable," was universally embraced and maintained in America; and the colonies denied the right of parliament to tax them without their consent. In vain did the ministry alledge that a revenue raised in America would be expended in supporting government and defending the colonies. The assemblies wished not to

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have the taxes raised by Great Britain, nor to be at her disposal.

440. *Congress at New-York.* To give system and efficacy to the colonial opposition to the stamp act, Massachusetts proposed a meeting of deputies from the several colonies to be held at New-York in October 1765. Accordingly deputies from nine of the colonies assembled in congress at New-York, and after deliberation, agreed on a declaration of their rights and grievances; asserted their exemption from taxes not imposed by their own representatives; and sent a petition to the king with a memorial to both houses of parliament. This spirited opposition, seconded by the energetic eloquence of Mr. Pitt and other friends of America, produced a repeal of the stamp law, on the 18th of March 1766. The news of this event was received in America, with bonfires, ringing of bells, and other unusual demonstrations of joy.

441. *Duties on Glass, Paper, Paints, and Tea.* Not discouraged by the fate of the stamp act, the British ministry persisted in their design of raising a revenue in America; and in 1767, an act was passed, for laying duties on glass, painters colors, paper, and tea, imported into the colonies. To render the act effectual, a custom-house was directed to be established in America, with a board of commissioners to superintend the revenues, and to reside at Boston. These duties, were small, but the colonists objected to the principle, rather than to the amount, of the tax; and remonstrated against the act. A second association was formed for suspending the importation and consumption of the goods on which duties were charged, and other British manufactures. These measures of Massachusetts were adopted by the other colonies, and a circular letter from Boston had its influence in giving concert and consistency to the opinions and proceedings of the colonial assemblies. This opposition, supported by petitions and remonstrances in

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January 1770, procured an abolition of all the duties, except that of three pence on every pound of tea.

442. *Causes of Smuggling.* The enterprising commercial spirit of the people in America, bore, with extreme impatience, the severe regulations imposed on their trade, which prevented their seeking the best markets, and poured all the profits of a thriving commerce into the bosom of the parent state. So unjust and tyrannical were these restrictions considered, that smuggling goods to evade the duties, was deemed honorable and greatly encouraged. In 1768, the revenue officers seized a sloop, in Boston harbor, for attempts to smuggle wine. The populace assembled with a view to rescue the sloop, but she was moored under the protection of a British ship of war. The populace then attacked the houses of the commissioners, who saved themselves by flight to the castle.

443. *First armed force sent to support the Acts of Parliament.* The ministry, finding all mild efforts to establish their authority, in regard to a revenue unavailing, sent four regiments of troops to be stationed at Boston, to overawe the inhabitants, and assist the crown officers to enforce the obnoxious acts of parliament. The arrival of these in 1768 gave no small uneasiness to the colonies, but no opposition was then made. The ministry also gave orders to station armed ships in the principal ports to prevent smuggling. An armed schooner, called the Gaspee, was stationed in Providence river, where she was burnt in 1772 by an exasperated populace. A large reward was offered for the discovery of the offenders, but no discovery was made.

444. *Further measures to enforce obedience.* In 1769. the parliament passed an act to revive the provision of a statue enacted in the arbitrary reign of Henry 8th; by which, persons charged with treason in any of the colonies, might be arrested and sent to England for trial. The gross injustice of this act, augmented the clamor against the ministry in Great

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Britain, and served only to exasperate still more, the minds of the Americans. This impolitic act alone would have raised a rebellion in the colonies. Indeed the spirit of opposition increased, in proportion to the determination of the British ministry to compel submission, and the differences became irreconcilable.

445. *Massacre in* 1770. To a free and high spirited people, the presence of an insolent military, could not but be extremely irksome and provoking: and it was not possible that harmony could long subsist between the inhabitants of Boston, and the British troops. A slight affray took place between them on the second of March 1770; but on the night of the fifth, the enmity of the parties burst forth in violence and blood. A body of troops being ordered to disperse a number of the citizens of Boston, who were collected in Cornhill, the populace pelted them with stones: upon which the troops fired among them, killed three and wounded five, two of whom died. With great difficulty the soldiers were saved from the fury of the enraged populace. But this outrage inflamed the animosity of the Americans against Great Britain, and hastened a most important crisis. To commemorate this melancholy tragedy, an anniversary oration was instituted in Boston, and was annually pronounced by some distinguished citizen on the fifth of March, till the close of the revolution.

446. *Destruction of Tea at Boston.* Although the duties laid on commodities imported into America, had been taken off, except the duty on tea, yet the ministry persisted in maintaining the right to raise a revenue in the colonies; and to establish that principle, granted permission to the East India company to ship to America, a large quantity of tea, charged with the duty. This finess of the ministry did not succeed. The Americans, determined to resist the principle of taxation in every shape, opposed the landing of the tea; in some ports they obliged the consignees to re-

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sign their employment, and compelled the ships to return to England without landing their cargoes. In Boston, the populace had less temper, and a party, disguised in the dress of Indians, went on board the tea ships, and threw the tea into the sea. This transaction, which amounted to an open resistance of the government of Great Britain, and led to more energetic measures, on the part of that government, happened in the year, 1773.

447. *Measures of Parliament relating to Massachusetts.* In pursuance of the ministerial plan of reducing Massachusetts to obedience, an act of parliament was passed for regulating the government of that province; by which the powers of the people were abridged, and the officers of government made dependent on the crown for their appointment and salaries. By another act, persons indicted for murder or other capital offenses might, if the governor should think an impartial trial could not be had in the colony, be sent to Great Britain to be tried. By another act, an attempt was made to strengthen the interest and power of the crown in America, by enlarging the province of Canada, and granting unusual privileges to the Catholics. All which measures tended only to increase the jealousy of the colonies, by developing the views of the ministry.

448. *Boston Port Bill.* In 1774, the parliament, with a view to punish the refractory province of Massachusetts, and especially the inhabitants of Boston, as also to bring them to submission, passed an act to shut the port of Boston, and to restrain all intercourse with the town by water. The government and public offices were removed to Salem, and it was expected by the ministry that Salem would be pleased with the prospect of enjoying the advantages of being the seat of government and the center of trade. But this miserable stratagem had no effect, but to irritate the inhabitants of Salem, who disdained to thrive on the ruins of Boston. These proceedings,

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added to the detection of some letters which had been written by the crown officers in Boston, advising to more decisive measures against the colonies, raised a ferment in America, that left little hopes of a reconciliation.

449. *Committee of Correspondence.* During the transactions which have been related, some of the most able and distinguished patriots in Massachusetts, who had long seen the necessity of a separation from Great Britain, but who wished, if possible to avoid an alternative that must involve the country in a sanguinary contest, formed themselves into a committee of correspondence, for the purpose of obtaining and diffusing correct information, for uniting opinions and acting in unison with their fellow patriots in other colonies. This committee received advices regularly from their friends in Great Britain, which enabled them to be prepared, and to prepare the public mind, for every exigency. Similar committees were established in all the other New England colonies, and became the ground-work of their future union.

450. *Arrival of General Gage and his reception.* In May 1774, General Gage arrived in Boston, with the commission of Governor of Massachusetts, and commander in chief of the British forces. At the moment of his arrival, the people were in great agitation, at the news of the port bill; notwithstanding which, the general was received with respect and treated with politeness. Shortly after, arrived two more regiments, with artillery and military stores, indicative of the determination of the British government to reduce the colonies to submission by the force of arms.

451. *Conduct of the Colonies on this occasion.* When the Americans saw, by the measures of the British government, that reconciliation was no longer to be expected, and that their rights were to be defended by an appeal to force, deploring the awful event, but confident of the justice of their cause, and the recti-

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tude of their purposes, they set apart a day of humiliation and prayer, to invoke the Supreme Being and manifest their dependence on him for support in the arduous contest. And as the port bill had put an end to the trade of Boston, and thus deprived the inhabitants of the means of subsistence, the inhabitants of the colonies opened the hand of charity, and sent liberal contributions to their relief. At the same time the committee of correspondence framed an agreement, called a solemn league and covenant, by which they determined to suspend all intercourse with Great Britain, until their chartered rights should be restored. In like manner, agreements were formed in all parts of America, neither to import nor to consume British goods.

452. *Proceedings of General Gage.* Soon after General Gage arrived, he was addressed by certain gentlemen of the council, but the address containing severe reflections on his predecessor, he would not receive it. Observing the temper of the people, he began to think of measures of defense; and directed Boston neck to be fortified. He also seized on the powder lodged in the public store at Charlestown. He issued a proclamation, to oppose the solemn league and covenant, pronouncing it an unlawful and traitorous combination. But all this served only to inflame and irritate the public mind, and bring his authority into contempt.

453. *Origin of Provincial Congresses.* General Gage had summoned the assembly of Massachusetts to convene at Salem; but on further reflection, had countermanded the summons. The counter-order was deemed illegal, and the members convened. The governor not meeting them, they organized themselves into a provincial congress, which formed a plan of defense; resolved to enroll a body of men, to be prepared for marching at a minute's notice, and therefore called *minute-men*; they appointed general officers, a committee of safety, to act as a kind of execu-

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tive council, and took measures to collect supplies and military stores, at Worcester and Concord. After an adjournment, for a short time, they again met, determined on raising twelve thousand men; sent agents to the neighboring colonies, to request their co-operation, and committees of the New England colonies met and agreeed on a plan of operations. At the same time, measures were taken to combine all the colonies into a firm union, and for this purpose, it was agreed that delegates from the several colonies should meet in a general congress.

454. *General Congress.* On the fifth of September, 1774, delegates from twelve colonies convened in Philadelphia, to deliberate on the most important questions that ever engaged the anxious solicitude of men. The delegates were appointed by the colonial legislatures; or where none existed, the appointments were made by select meetings and associations of citizens. They were men of the most distinguished character and talents, and enjoyed the public confidence. Before the meeting of the general congress, a convention of deputies from the towns in Suffolk county, in Massachusetts, had declared that no obedience was due to the late acts of the British parliament, but that those acts ought to be rejected as the attempts of a wicked administration to enslave America. This declaration was approved by the general congress, which resolved, that if attempts should be made to carry into effect the obnoxious acts of parliament, all America ought to unite with Massachusetts in their opposition.

455. *Proceedings of the first Congress.* The great council of America, solicitous to preserve peace with the parent state, but determined to be free, adopted measures which presented to the British ministry the olive branch with one hand and the sword with the other; submitting it to their choice to withdraw their unconstitutional claims, or to meet the most determined resistance. They addressed General Gage,

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stating the grievances of Massachusetts, and their resolution to support that province in her opposition; intreating him to forbear hostilities, and not preclude the hope of a reconciliation. They published a declaration of the rights of the colonies, one of which was an exemption from taxes imposed upon them by a legislature in which they were not represented. They however consented to submit to all the general regulations of commerce, intended for the benefit of the whole British empire. They declared several acts of parliament to be infringements of the rights of the colonies, and a repeal of them necessary to a reconciliation. They entered into an agreement to discontinue the importation of British goods; they sent a petition to the king, and addresses to the British nation, to the Canadians, and to the colonies.

456. *Consequent proceedings of Parliament.* When the proceedings of the American congress were laid before parliament, lord Chatham introduced some conciliatory propositions, but they were rejected by a large ministerial majority; and a joint address of both houses to the king, declared that rebellion actually existed in the province of Massachusetts. The houses therefore besought his majesty to take the most effectual measures to enforce due obedience to the laws and authority of the supreme legislature; and assured him that they were determined to support him in maintaining the just rights of the crown. From this moment, an appeal to arms became unavoidable, and both parties prepared for the conflict.

457. *Condition of the Parties at the beginning of the War.* When the Americans determined to oppose their military strength to that of Great Britain, the disparity was such as might well appall the bravest heart. Great Britain possessed immense wealth and resources, her navy and merchantmen covered the ocean, her armies were considerable for numbers and discipline, her military and naval officers were of renowned skill and experience; great was her power,

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and still greater the pride of her sovereignty. The colonies on the other hand, were destitute of all these advantages; they had no general government vested with powers to control the contending interests of thirteen distinct jurisdictions; the colonial governments were mostly dissolved: No skillful officers, no disciplined troops, no muskets proper for an army, no cannon nor ammunition, no camp equipage, no armed ships; nothing but consciousness of upright views, persuasion of the justice of their cause, dauntless courage, and confidence in the God of hosts, encouraged the Americans to hazard the unequal contest.

458. *Measures of Parliament preparatory to hostilities.* In the winter and spring of 1775, the ministry headed by lord North, procured an act of parliament to prohibit the New England colonies from carrying on the fisheries, and from trading with the British possessions in Europe and the West Indies. These restraints were, by a subsequent bill, extended to the other colonies. These acts were accompanied with bills for an augmentation of the sea and land forces. The army in Boston was increased to ten thousand men, which number was deemed sufficient to reduce the rebellious colonies to submission. At the same time lord North introduced a motion for adopting what he called a conciliatory plan, but which in fact held out a lure to tempt the colonies to divide from each other, by exempting from parliamentary duties and taxation, such of them as would contribute to the common defense, by raising their proportion of money in their own way.

459. *Colonial preparations for war.* A British proclamation forbidding the exportation of arms and ammunition to the colonies, was no sooner received, than the most vigorous efforts were made in America to procure supplies. A high bounty on the materials and manufacture of powder, caused mills for making it to spring up in all parts of the country, as by enchantment. Ships and money were dispatched se-

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cretly to Europe to purchase and import arms and ammunition. In some places, the cannon belonging to the crown, were seized. The militia was put under discipline; associations and committees were every where formed to carry into effect the recommendations of congress; and in the popular enthusiasm, their resolves and advisory proposals had the effect of laws.

460. *Attack on the militia at Lexington.* An attempt of a party of British troops to take some cannon which were lodged at Salem, threatened to open the awful scene of hostilities, but the persuasion of a worthy clergyman induced the provincial troops to withdraw their opposition, at the drawbridge in the town; the British troops marched over, and not finding the cannon which had been previously removed, they marched back unmolested. But in April, a body of troops was ordered to march to Concord to destroy the military stores, which the Americans had collected at that place. The march, though in the night,



BATTLE AT LEXINGTON.

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was discovered, and early in the morning of the 19th of the month, about seventy of the Lexington militia assembled on the green. Major Pitcairn, who commanded the British troops, rode up to the militia, and addressing them by the name of *rebels*, ordered them to disperse. Not being obeyed, he discharged his pistol, and ordered the troops to fire. Eight men were killed and some others wounded. Thus began the sanguinary contest which dismembered the British empire, and ended in the establishment of the independence of the colonies.

461. *Return of the troops to Boston.* Having dispersed the militia at Lexington, the British troops proceeded to Concord, destroyed some flour and other stores, and returned to Boston. But the exasperated patriots in the vicinity collected, and with such arms as they had, annoyed the troops on their march, by firing from behind fences and walls; and it is doubtful whether the detachment would not have been all killed or taken had not a reenforcement arrived and joined that body at Lexington on its retreat. On the part of the Americans, fifty men were killed, and a number wounded. Of the British forces sixty five were killed, and one hundred and eighty six wounded.

462. *Measures taken by the Colonies after the commencement of hostilities.* The provincial congress of Massachusetts, which was in session, at the time of the affair at Lexington, published a manifesto, addressed to the people of Great Britain, exculpating the Americans, complaining of the ravages of the British troops, declaring their loyalty to the crown, but protesting that they would not submit to the tyranny of the ministry. They declared General Gage to be disqualified for governor of the province, and that he ought to be treated as an enemy. They also passed votes for supplying the army with pay and clothing. The general congress met in May 1775, and resolved to raise an army, and issue bills of credit to defray the expenses of the war. They now took the appel-

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lation of the UNITED COLONIES, and recommended a day of humiliation to implore the blessings of heaven on their sovereign, the king of Great Britain, and the interposition of divine aid to remove their grievances, and restore harmony between the parent state and the colonies, on constitutional terms.

463. *Entrenchment on Breed's Hill.* After the skirmish on the 19th of April, General Gage issued a proclamation declaring the Americans in rebellion, and denouncing against them the severest vengeance; offering however to pardon all who should return to their allegiance, except some of the principal fomenters of opposition; as if he expected the Americans would abandon their leaders to the gallows. In the mean time, a considerable army was collected in the towns near Boston, and it was determined to annoy, and if possible, dislodge the British forces in Boston. For this purpose, a detachment was ordered on the night of the 16th of June, 1775, to throw up a breast work on Bunker's hill, near Charlestown. By some mistake the troops entrenched on Breed's hill, nearer to Boston, and so silent and active were they, that by the return of light, they had nearly completed a strong redout, without being discovered by the enemy.

464. *Battle on Breed's Hill.* No sooner had the dawn of the morning enabled the enemy to discover the advance of the Americans, than a severe cannonade from the ships in the river, announced the determination of the British commander, to oppose the progress of the works. But this not interrupting the Americans, a body of about three thousand men under General Howe, landed under protection of the shipping, and advanced to attack the works. The Americans permitted the enemy to approach within ten or twelve rods, and then discharged such a shower of musket shot as to throw the troops into disorder, and oblige them to fall back. Being rallied and advancing a second time, a second fire did such execution, as to compel the British troops to retreat. Ter-

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rible was the carnage, and so disheartened were the enemy, that the officers found it difficult to rally the troops. At length they were brought to charge the entrenchments with fixed bayonets, and the Americans, who had no bayonets, were forced to abandon the works.

465. *Burning of Charlestown, and event of the action.* When the British troops first landed, orders had been given to set fire to Charlestown, with a view to cover their approach; and almost the whole town, consisting of four hundred houses, was laid in ashes. This barbarous deed proved of no use to the enemy, but served to exasperate the Americans. After a heroic defense of the hill, the American troops destitute of bayonets and of ammunition, and overpowered by numbers, retreated over Charlestown Neck, exposed to a raking fire from the Glasgow ship of war, and two floating batteries, from which however they suffered no great annoyance. Severe was the loss of British officers and soldiers in this action, amounting to more than a thousand men. The loss on the part of the Americans was less considerable; not amounting to a hundred killed, and three hundred wounded and missing. Among the killed however, was general Warren, a brave officer and firm patriot.

466. *Surprise of Ticonderoga and Crown Point.* The importance of securing the passes into Canada, had occurred to some persons soon after the action at Lexington. To effect this, different parties of men were dispatched to gain possession of the principal forts on the lakes. So secret was the expedition under Col. Allen and Col. Arnold, that they surprised and took the commander of Ticonderoga in his bed. Col. Warner, with a company took Crown Point, and in these two forts, the Americans found cannon and military stores, which were greatly wanted. In the mean time, the British ministry employed means to enlist a body of Canadians into their service, and sent twenty thousand stands of arms, to Governor

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Carlton at Quebec, for the use of the troops. But the inhabitants declined taking any part in the contest. An inhuman attempt of the ministry to engage the savages to fall on the frontiers, and annoy the colonies, proved equally unsuccessful.

467. *Proceedings of Congress in* 1775. In May 1775, the congress met at Philadelphia, agreeable to adjournment, and delegates from Georgia completed the representation of the colonies. One of their acts was a manifesto, justifying the necessity of taking arms in defense of the colonial rights, which was written in a masterly style, and calculated to make a deep impression on the minds of their constituents. They sent another petition to the king, but it was treated with contempt. They directed an emission of bills of credit, not to exceed two millions of dollars, and the faith of the union was pledged for their redemption. They established a post office, under the direction of doctor Franklin. They directed twelve companies of riflemen to be enlisted, instituted a general hospital, and appointed general officers.

468. *Appointment of a Commander in Chief.* It was a point of immense importance, to select, for the supreme command of the American army, a person of military talents adequate to the task, and of qualities adapted to conciliate the affections and confidence of men of different habits and education, and not free from strong local prejudices. Fortunately such a character was found and selected. George Washington, a delegate from Virginia, was appointed commander in chief of the American army, on the 15th of June 1775. This gentleman had been employed as an officer in the war with France, and had displayed eminent bravery and talents. To his experience in military affairs, he united sound judgment, extensive knowledge of men, perfect probity, pure morals, a grave deportment, indefatigable industry, easy manners, strict politeness, a commanding

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person, cool bravery, unshaken fortitude, and a prudence that baffled and confounded his enemies.

469. *Taking of St. Johns.* In pursuance of the plan of guarding the frontiers by taking Canada, or crippling the British power in that province, Generals Schuyler and Montgomery were sent with a body of troops to attack the forts on the borders of Canada. But General Schuyler returning to hold a treaty with the Indians, the command was left with General Montgomery. A small fort at Chamblee was first taken, where a supply of powder was obtained, and siege was laid to St. Johns. Some attempts were made by Governor Carlton to relieve the garrison; but in vain; and the garrison, amounting to seven hundred men, surrendered on the third of November 1775. This was succeeded by the surrender of Montreal. The only misfortune that attended these enterprises, was the loss of Col. Allen, who, engaging in a rash attempt on Montreal, with a small party, was made prisoner, and sent in irons to England.

470. *Attack on Quebec and defeat of the Americans.* Col. Arnold had been sent from the army at Cambridge, with eleven hundred men to penetrate to Quebec by the river Kennebec, and the wilderness. After a most difficult march, in which fatigue and famine reduced his men to about four hundred, the remainder being obliged to return, he joined General Montgomery before Quebec, in November. Preparations were made to besiege the city, and some batteries opened, but the metal was not heavy enough to make an impression. General Montgomery therefore determined upon an escalade. The army, small in number, and exposed to most inclement weather, made the attack on the last day of the year 1775, in four divisions; two of which attacks were feints to deceive the garrison. General Montgomery entered the first barrier, but in attempting the second, was killed with most of his attending officers. The division commanded by Col. Arnold took a two gun

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battery, but the commander was wounded and compelled to leave the field. His men fought like heroes for three hours, but being surrounded, and seeing no hope of relief, they surrendered prisoners of war.

471. *The burning of Norfolk.* At the commencement of the troubles in America, violent altercations between lord Dunmore, governor of Virginia, and the assembly, had induced the governor to dissolve the legislature, and to refuse calling another. A convention was therefore assembled in March 1775, consisting of two delegates from a county, who exercised the powers of government. On which lord Dunmore seized and conveyed on board of a ship, the powder in the magazine at Williamsburg. The people assembled in arms and demanded the powder, or its value, which the governor promised, and an apparent reconciliation took place. But the governor alarmed by popular meetings, sent his family on board of a ship of war, and issued a proclamation, charging the magistrates of Virginia with treason and rebellion. In June, the governor summoned the assembly, and attempted to persuade them to accept of lord North's conciliatory propositions; but finding them inflexible he withdrew on board of the ship. Many irritations on the part of the country people, and the governor's adherents, at length produced hostilities, and by order of lord Dunmore, the flourishing town of Norfolk was laid in ashes, on the first of January 1776.

472. *Dissolution of the Colonial Government.* During the year 1775, the old governments of the colonies were all dissolved. The royal governors, and all the crown officers, adhering to the British measures, became odious to the people; and when the popular ferment became violent, they were obliged to leave the country, or suspend their functions. From that time, temporary conventions were held for the purpose of administering the laws and making regulations to meet the public occasions. Many adherents to Great Britain, however, remained in the country;

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some of them, men of principle, were quiet citizens: others took part with the British troops, and by secret machinations or open hostility, aided and directed their operations. In some of the colonies, the British adherents were numerous and powerful; and contributed to weaken the opposition to the British arms.

473. *Military operations in and near Boston.* General Washington, soon after his appointment, repaired to the army, accompanied with General Lee, and established his quarters at Cambridge. On his journey, and at camp, he was received and welcomed with the most profound respect; and his presence inspired a degree of confidence which was an auspicious presage of his future influence. The army investing Boston, amounted to about fifteen thousand men; but was destitute of good arms, ammunition, clothing and experienced officers. The first, and a most difficult task, was, to organize and discipline the troops. All the powder in the army amounted only to nine rounds to a soldier; and to deceive the country with hopes and the British general with fears, casks of sand, were transported to the camp, under the name of powder. A small supply from New Jersey, and the cargo of a brig, the first prize taken by Captain Manly, afforded a temporary and almost miraculous relief.

474. *Destruction of Falmouth.* The inhabitants of Falmouth, a thriving town in Maine, in compliance with the resolves of the provincial congress, to prevent the royalists from removing their effects, obstructed the loading of a mast ship, which drew upon them the vengeance of the British admiral. An order was given to burn the town, which, after a short notice to the inhabitants, to remove their effects, was barbarously executed; and most of the town was leveled with the dust, on the 18th of October 1775. Such indignities and inhuman modes of warfare, added fuel to the popular flame of opposition, and ren-

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dered it inextinguishable. In November following, the government of Massachusetts authorized letters of mark and reprisal, and instituted courts of admiralty for the trial and condemnation of prizes. Immediately the sea swarmed with American privateers, which captured vast numbers of valuable British ships, and supplied the Americans with all kinds of goods and military stores.

475. *Evacuation of Boston.* The want of powder and the necessity of re-enlisting the troops, whose time of service had expired, rendered the army at Cambridge inactive, during the summer and autumn of 1775. It was however the intention of General Washington to avail himself of a bridge of ice over Charles river in the following winter, to march his troops into Boston, and dislodge the enemy. But a council of war advised not to make the attempt. The mode of attack was therefore varied. For the purpose of diverting the attention of the enemy a severe canonade upon the town, was commenced, on the 2d of March; and on the night of the 4th, a battery was erected on a hill at Dorchester Point, which was near enough to annoy the British troops in Boston. The British commander prepared to attack the works, but a storm prevented, until the works were deemed so strong as to render it inexpedient. The only alternative then was, to quit the town, which was done with great alacrity; and on the 17th March 1776, General Washington marched into Boston, to the unspeakable joy of its oppressed inhabitants.

476. *Proceedings of Parliament in the spring of* 1776. The news of the affair at Breed's hill, determined the ministry to employ a powerful force to reduce the colonies in 1776. For this purpose, they obtained an act of parliament, to justify them in taking into pay and introducing into the British dominions sixteen thousand German troops, which, with the British regiments, constituted a force destined for America, of about fifty thousand men. At the same

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session, an act passed to prohibit all trade and intercourse between Great Britain and the colonies. This law was violently opposed by the English merchants, but without effect. One clause of the act authorized the seizure and condemnation of all American property, on the high seas, and what was, beyond example inhuman, the bill authorized British subjects to compel men, taken on board of American vessels, to fight against their own countrymen.

477. *Steps preparatory to Independence.* In the winter of 1775–6, few men in America had ever thought of a final separation of the colonies from the dominion of Great Britain. The great body of the people would have been startled at the proposal. Certain leading men probably had long foreseen and contemplated the event; but some previous steps were necessary to prepare the public mind for a measure involving in its consequences, the fate of millions. At this time, Thomas Paine, an Englishman of low birth, who possessed a popular talent at writing, and no small share of sophistry, and who before he debased himself by infidelity and licentious principles was much respected, ushered into the world a number of papers, signed COMMON SENSE, to prove the necessity and expediency of a declaration of independence. He was doubtless impelled to this and supported by eminent characters. The continent was electrified by his writings; the minds of people were prepared for the great event.

478. *Declaration of Independence.* The news of the acts of parliament, by which war was declared against the colonies, and the inhabitants put out of the protection of the British government, afforded a favorable opportunity to take the decisive step of severing the bands of connection between the parent state and the colonies. The motion for this purpose was made in congress by Richard Henry Lee of Virginia, and after full discussion, the question was carried by a great majority. On the memorable 4th of

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July 1776, the congress, after enumerating the causes which impelled the colonies to the measure, made and published a manifesto, or solemn declaration, by which they asserted that "These United Colonies are and of right ought to be FREE and INDEPENDENT STATES," appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of their intentions and pledging to each other, for the support of independence, their lives, their fortunes and their sacred honor.

479. *Attack of Sullivan's Island.* Early in 1776, a squadron of British ships, under Admiral Parker, with a body of land forces on board, appeared before Charleston, in South Carolina, with a view to take possession and make an impression on the southern states. An attempt had been made in winter, by a party of British troops and royalists, to penetrate into North Carolina, but it was repelled with bravery by the militia. In June the British ships were brought to bear upon Sullivan's island, which commands the passage to Charleston, and the attack commenced. But the fire was returned with great effect from the fort, which was commanded by colonel Moultrie. The ships were shattered and obliged to abandon the attack, with a heavy loss of men. The squadron soon departed for New York.

480. *Retreat from Canada.* After the defeat at Quebec, the Americans continued the seige through the winter; but the small pox broke out among them, and weakened their exertions. Early in spring, general Carleton received large reenforcements, and the Americans were obliged to retreat. General Thompson attacked a body of troops at the Three Rivers, but was defeated and taken prisoner. After which, the troops demolished the forts at Chamblee and St. Johns, and proceeded to Crown point. The British forces in Canada amounted to thirteen thousand men, but not having boats or shipping, they were unable to cross the lake, and their operations were suspended till autumn. During the summer, the Americans

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were reenforced, to the number of fourteen thousand men, who were employed in strengthening the works at Ticonderoga, and raising fortifications on a hill on the opposite side of the lake, which they called mount Independence. But in autumn, one half the army was disabled by a violent ague and fever, and a malignant dysentery. In October, the armed vessels of the parties came to action, and the Americans were defeated, but it being late, the British troops retired into Canada for the winter.

481. *Operations at New-York.* As soon as Boston was evacuated, general Lee had been sent to New-York to prepare to repel the British forces, which General Washington supposed, would be directed to occupy that important and central position. The main army followed, and took up their quarters on York Island. In June, the British fleet arrived at the Hook, a point of land at the entrance of the bay or harbor, having on board thirty-five thousand troops, a body of cavalry, and military apparatus of every kind. General Washington could oppose to this force not more than seventeen thousand men, most of them without experience or discipline, and weakened by a malignant dysentery. In this situation, a line of fortifications was erected on Long Island, and such other preparations made to resist the enemy, as exigences would permit. Before the commencement of hostilities, Lord Howe, the British admiral, sent a letter to General Washington, to offer terms of accommodation; but the letter being addressed to George Washington, Esq. the commander, with becoming dignity, declined receiving it or any writing, unless directed to him in his true character.

482. *The Adjutant General's Interview and the action on Long Island.* General Howe, the commander of the land forces, notwithstanding the fate of his brother's letter, sent his Adjutant General Patterson with a letter directed to George Washington, &c. &c. &c. This indignity was also repelled. After

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some conversation, in which General Washington observed, that the proposed conditions of reconciliation amounted to little more than an offer of pardon, and as the Americans had committed no offense, they wanted no pardon, the Adjutant General departed, and both parties prepared for action. On the 22d of August, the British troops landed on the south-west side of Long-Island, near Utrecht, and the party gained the rear of the American forces. On the 27th of the month, the attack commenced; but the Americans being surrounded, and exposed to the fire of the Hessians in front, and of the British regulars in rear, were totally defeated. Some regiments forced their way through the enemy, with great loss; but a large part fell in action or became prisoners. The Americans stated their loss at twelve hundred; the British stated it at three thousand. General Sullivan and Lord Sterling fell into the hands of the enemy, whose loss was not more than three or four hundred.

483. *Retreat from Long Island.* After this severe defeat, General Washington with the advice of a council of war, ordered a retreat from Long-Island. On the night of the 29th, this was effected with a success that was deemed a merciful interposition of heaven. Within a single night, an army of nine thousand men, with their artillery, tents and baggage, was transported to New-York over a difficult ferry of a mile in breadth, while the British army was encamped within six hundred yards, and did not discover the retreat, till too late to annoy the Americans. Soon after this event, captain Nathan Hale of Connecticut, belonging to Colonel Knowlton's regiment, was employed as a spy to gain information of the enemy's situation and designs. He had entered and examined their camp, but on his return, was taken, and the evidence of his employment being clear, he was executed. Thus a brave officer and worthy citizen, fell a victim to his ardent patriotism, lamenting that he had but one life to lose for his country.

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484. *Consequences of the Defeat on Long Island.* Lord Howe, under an impression that the defeat on Long Island would induce congress to comply with his terms, dismissed General Sullivan on his parole, with a message to Congress, requesting a conference with some of their members. Accordingly three gentlemen were appointed, who repaired to Staten Island. But as the committee declined treating, in any other character than that of the representatives of independent states, and Lord Howe could not receive them in that capacity, the interview closed with mere compliments. The enemy then passed up the East River, and landed a party at Turtle Bay, killed Colonel Knowlton and dispersed his troops. A larger party proceeded and landed at Frog's Neck; and a considerable action took place at White Plains. In danger of being surrounded, General Washington was compelled to abandon York Island; leaving a garrison in fort Washington; but this was assaulted and taken soon after, with the loss of more than two thousand prisoners. Fort Lee, on the west side of the Hudson was abandoned, and the enemy remained masters of York Island, Long Island and Staten Island. Soon after General Howe took possession of New-York, the city was set on fire, by what means is not known, and that part of it west of Broadway, was reduced to ashes.

485. *Retreat of General Washington, and his victory at Trenton.* The American army being greatly reduced by the loss of men taken prisoners, and by the departure of men whose enlistments had expired, General Washington was obliged to retreat towards Philadelphia; General Howe, exulting in his successes, pursued him, notwithstanding the weather was severely cold. To add to the disasters of the Americans, General Lee was surprised and taken prisoner at Baskenridge. In this gloomy state of affairs, many persons joined the British cause and took protections. But a small band of heroes checked the tide

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of British success. A division of Hessians had advanced to Trenton, where they reposed in security. General Washington was on the opposite side of the Delaware, with about three thousand men, many of whom were without shoes or convenient clothing; and the river was covered with floating ice. But the General knew the importance of striking some successful blow, to animate the expiring hopes of the country; and on the night of December 25th, crossed the river, fell on the enemy by surprise, and took the whole body consisting of about nine hundred men. A few were killed, among whom was Colonel Rahl, the commander.

486. *Victory at Princeton.* On the 2d of January 1777, lord Cornwallis appeared near Trenton, with a strong body of troops. Skirmishing took place, and impeded the march of the British army, until the Americans had secured their artillery and baggage; when they retired to the southward of the creek, and repulsed the enemy in their attempt to pass the bridge. As General Washington's force was not sufficient to meet the enemy, and his situation was critical, he determined, with the advice of a council of war, to attempt a stratagem. He gave orders for the troops to light fires in their camp, [which were intended to deceive the enemy,] and be prepared to march. Accordingly at twelve o'clock at night the troops left the ground, and by a circuitous march, eluded the vigilance of the enemy, and early in the morning appeared at Princeton. A smart action ensued, but the British troops gave way. A party took refuge in the college, a building with strong stone walls, but were forced to surrender. The enemy lost in killed, wounded and prisoners, about five hundred men. The Americans lost but few men; but among them was a most valuable officer, General Mercer.

487. *Close of the Campaign of* 1776. The bold and decisive measures of the American general, surprised and confounded his enemies. The British were can-

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toned for the winter at Brunswick and Amboy, where they were watched by the American Army and the active militia of New Jersey. The troops in the American service however were few in number, not more than fifteen hundred, who kept in check, a formidable British army, during the winter. General Washington, whose powers had before been limited, was invested, in this critical juncture, with supreme and unlimited command, which he exercised for the public safety. Congress also made great exertions to rouse the spirits of the people by a bold and energetic address; and they adopted measures for raising an army for three years or during the war; offering large bounties and encouragements. They formed a confederation to be adopted by the states, as a bond of union, and recommended to the several states to form constitutions for their own government, which was accordingly done in this and the following year. They also sent agents to Europe to solicit the friendship and aid of foreign powers.

488. *Opening of the Campaign of* 1777. In March 1777, a detachment of British troops destroyed the stores and forage belonging to the United States at Peekskill. In April, General Tryon, with three thousand men, landed in Connecticut, between Fairfield and Norwalk, advanced to Danbury, burnt the continental stores, which were valuable, and most of the town, and retreated to the shipping. On their return, Generals Wooster, Arnold and Silliman, with such of the militia as could be hastily collected, harrassed them and killed a considerable number. The Americans lost a number of men, and that veteran and deserving officer, General Wooster. In May, Colonel Meigs, a brave and enterprising officer, with 170 men, passed over to Long Island, destroyed the shipping and stores collected for the British at Sag-harbor, and took ninety prisoners, without the loss of a man. In July, Colonel Barton of Rhode Island, with a few volunteers, crossed the Narraganset at night, surprised and took prisoner General Prescot.

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489. *Retreat of the Americans from Ticonderoga.* In June 1777, the British Army, amounting to seven thousand men, besides Indians and Canadians, commanded by General Burgoyne, crossed the lake and laid siege to Ticonderoga. In a short time, the enemy gained possession of Sugar Hill, which commanded the American lines, and General St. Clair, with the advice of a council of war, ordered the posts to be abandoned. The retreat of the Americans was conducted under every possible disadvantage; part of their force embarked in bateaus and landed at Skenesborough, a part marched by the way of Castleton; but they were obliged to leave their heavy cannon, and on their march, lost a great part of their baggage and stores, while their rear was harrassed by the British troops. An action took place between Colonel Warner, with a body of Americans and General Frazer, in which the Americans were defeated, after a brave resistance with the loss of a valuable officer, Colonel Francis.

490. *Battle of Bennington.* The Americans had



BATTLE OF BENNINGTON.

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collected a quantity of stores at Bennington; to destroy which as well as to animate the royalists and intimidate the patriots, General Burgoyne detached Colonel Baum, with five hundred men and one hundred Indians. Colonel Breyman was sent to reenforce him, but did not arrive in time. On the 16th of August, General Stark, with about eight hundred brave militia men, attacked Colonel Baum, in his entrenched camp about six miles from Bennington, and killed or took prisoners nearly the whole detachment. The next day Colonel Breyman was attacked and defeated. In these actions, the Americans took about seven hundred prisoners, and these successes served to revive the spirits of the people. This success however was in part counterbalanced by the advantages gained on the Mohawk by Colonel St. Leger; but this officer attacking fort Stanwix was repelled, and obliged to abandon the attempt.

491. *Defeat of General Burgoyne.* General Burgoyne, after collecting his forces and stores, crossed the Hudson with a view to penetrate to Albany. But the American army being reenforced daily, held him in check at Saratoga. General Gates now took the command, and was aided by the generals Lincoln and Arnold. On the 19th of September, the Americans attacked the British army, and with such bravery, that the enemy could boast of no advantage, and night put an end to the action. The loss of the enemy was about five hundred. General Burgoyne was confined in a narrow pass; having the Hudson on one side and impassable woods on the other; a body of Americans was in his rear; his boats he had ordered to be burnt, and he could not retreat; while an army of thirteen thousand men opposed him in front. On the 7th of October, the armies came to a second action, in which the British lost General Frazer, with a great number of officers and men, and were driven within their lines. On the part of the Americans the loss was not great, but Generals Lincoln and Arnold were wounded.

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492. *Surrender of the British army.* It was the plan of the British generals, to push a body of troops from New York to join Gen. Burgoyne at Albany, and by establishing a line of British posts on the Hudson, to intercept the intercourse between the New England and southern states. While general Burgoyne was attempting to advance towards Albany, General Clinton with a force of three thousand men took posession of fort Montgomery, after severe loss. General Vaughan, with a body of troops, on board of armed ships sailed up the Hudson, as far as Livingston's manor, where he landed a party, burnt a large house belonging to one of the family; then sent a party to the opposite shore and laid in ashes the town of Kingston. But General Burgoyne despairing of the junction between his army and the division from New York, surrounded by a superior army, and unable to retreat, consented to capitulate, and on the 17th of October, surrendered to the American general. The detachment under General Vaughan returned to New York, and the plan of the British commanders was totally frustrated.

493. *Operations of the main army.* General Washington's force had been augmented, during the winter and spring, so as to render it difficult or impossible for General Howe to pursue his plan of penetrating to Philadelphia. The British general therefore altered his plan, and embarking on board of his ships, entered the Chesapeak, and landed at the head of the Elk. On the 11th of September, an action was fought at Brandywine creek in which the American forces, after a brave resistance, were obliged to yield to superior numbers and discipline, with the loss of about twelve hundred men. The British loss was estimated at about half that number. General Washington retreated and encamped about eighteen miles from Philadelphia; while General Howe took possession of that city.

494. *Battle of Germantown.* After having taken

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possession of Philadelphia it became necessary for General Howe to take the forts in the Delaware, to open the communication with the Atlantic. The Americans had constructed a fort on Mud Island, and a redout on the opposite Jersey shore; and had obstructed the channel of the river. In attempting to take these forts, count Donop, and three or four hundred men were killed, but the forts were finally taken. While this detachment was absent, General Washington attacked the British army, and at first obtained success. But a fog in the morning occasioned many mistakes, and after a severe battle, the Americans retreated, but without the loss of their cannon. Their loss was about one thousand in killed and wounded. Among the slain was general Nash and his aid, major Witherspoon. The British lost upwards of five hundred men, with general Agnew and Col. Bird. After these operations, the armies went into winter quarters. The congress retired to Yorktown in Virginia.

495. *Proceedings in the British Parliament.* When the news of the loss of general Burgoyne's army reached England, the ministry began to speak of America with more moderation, while the opposition party were violent in their censures of administration. The war had then cost the nation about twenty thousand men, and thirty millions of money. In this state of affairs, the ministry had recourse to private subscriptions to raise additional troops. In February 1778, lord North laid before the house of commons two bills for conciliating the colonies, one to declare the intention of parliament concerning the right of taxing the colonies, the other for enabling the king to appoint commissioners, with full powers, to treat with the American congress, general Washington, or the assemblies of the colonies, respecting an accommodation of differences. These bills, after debate, were carried, and commissioners appointed. One event which hastened these propositions, was, the alliance

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between France and America, of which the ministry had obtained some intelligence.

496. *Treaties with France.* In 1776, congress had sent Silas Deane an agent to France, to solicit the friendship of that rival of Great Britain, and to procure arms and military stores. But the French court would give no open countenance to the agent, although it was evident that they secretly wished success to the Americans, because the dismemberment of the British empire, would greatly weaken a powerful rival. Mr. Deane however, obtained some ammunition, clothing, and a parcel of old muskets of little use. The French court would listen to no propositions of alliance, until they had news of the surrender of Burgoyne. That event decided the negotiation, and on the 6th of February 1778, a treaty of alliance and a treaty of amity and commerce were signed at Paris, by the French ministry, and the American commissioners, doctor Franklin, Mr. Dean and Mr. Lee.

497. *Transactions of the British commissioners.* The news of the alliance with France was received in America, with great joy. The prospect of a powerful ally infused new life into the Americans, and new vigor into their councils. In this state of the public mind, the British commissioners arrived in June, with terms of reconciliation, which, a few years earlier, might have effected the object. But the congress had proceeded too far to recede, and all conditions of reconciliation, implying a subjection to the British crown, and short of an explicit acknowledgment of the independence of the United States, were rejected. Among other means of recalling the Americans back to a dependence on Great Britain, a large bribe was offered to an influential gentleman, but it was rejected with disdain. This negotiation occasioned many publications of manifestos, and appeals to the people, but without any sensible effect on the public mind.

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498. *March of the enemy through New Jersey.* At the opening of the campaign in 1778, general Howe went to England, and left the command to sir Henry Clinton. In June the British army left Philadelphia, and marched towards Staten Island. In their march they were annoyed by the Americans, and on the 28th of June a division of the army under general Lee was ordered, if possible, to bring them to an engagement. The order was not obeyed; general Washington arrived, and riding up to general Lee, addressed him in terms that implied censure. General Lee answered with warmth and disrespectful language. General Washington led the troops in person, and a smart action took place, in which both parties claimed the victory, but the advantage was clearly on the side of the Americans. The loss in killed and wounded amounted to three or four hundred, on each side: but the British left the field of battle in the night and pursued their retreat. This battle happened at Freehold, in Monmouth county, during a period of extreme heat, the mercury being above ninety degrees by Farenheit's scale. Many of the soldiers died on the spot by heat, fatigue, or drinking cold water. General Lee was tried by a court martial for disobedience, and his command suspended for one year.

499. *Arrival of a French Fleet.* A fleet from Toulon, of twelve ships of the line and four frigates, under the command of the Count d'Estaing, arrived at the entrance of the Delaware in July, but it was too late to intercept Lord Howe's fleet, which had arrived at Sandyhook. The Count sailed and lay off the hook some days, but considering it as unsafe to attack the British ships, in the harbor, he departed for Rhode Island. A plan was concerted to attack General Pigot and the British troops at Newport, by sea and land; and General Sullivan was detached, with a considerable force to assist in the design. A landing in Rhode Island was effected by General Sullivan; but Lord Howe with the English fleet appearing off

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Newport, Count d'Estaing, left the siege and sailed to fight him. A violent tempest prevented an action, and disabled the fleets, so that the Count was obliged to put into Boston to refit. In consequence of this disaster, general Sullivan raised the seige of Newport. A smart action took place on his retreat, in which two or three hundred men were slain.

500. *Various expeditions in* 1778. The British army, after arriving at New York from Philadelphia, remained inactive during the summer, and the Americans encamped at White Plains. But in September, General Clinton dispatched General Grey, with a body of troops to destroy the shipping at New Bedford, which was a port much frequented by privateers. In this excursion, a large number of ships, with stores and a number of houses were burnt; and the sheep and cattle on the neighboring isles carried away by the enemy. Another party landed on the Jersey shore, surprised colonel Baylor's regiment of cavalry, while asleep, and with unequaled barbarity killed almost every man. A party of Indians and refugee royalists headed by colonels Butler and Brandt, fell suddenly on the small settlement at Wyoming, treacherously decoyed the guard out of the fort, under pretense of a parley, then surrounded and destroyed the party. Great numbers were killed after they had surrendered.

501. *The Taking of Savannah.* In autumn, general Clinton sent colonel Campbell, with a detachment, to make an impression on Georgia. He arrived at Tybee late in December, and prepared to assault the works near Savannah, which were in a decayed condition, and feebly defended. General Provost who commanded the British garrison at Augustine, was directed to co-operate in the expedition. The American force under general Howe, did not exceed eight hundred and twenty men. By way of a circuitous path, the British troops attacked the Americans in the rear, as well as front, and vanquished them, with the

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loss of about one hundred men killed, and nearly five hundred prisoners. The British took possession of Savannah. At this time an insurrection of royalists in North Carolina was crushed by the spirited exertions of the militia. In this year a more regular dicipline was introduced into the army, by baron Steuben, a German officer.

502. *Predatory Excursions of the British army in* 1779. Early in 1779, Sir Geore Collier, and general Matthews were detached to Virginia for the purpose of distressing the Americans. They landed at Portsmouth, and destroyed the shipping and valuable stores in that vicinity, with many houses. In June a party under general Vaughan took possession of an eminence on the west side of the Hudson, called Stony point, and obliged the small garrison at a redout, called Fayette, to surrender prisoners of war. In July a party under general Tryon invaded Connecticut, under pretext of destroying the privateers which infested Long Island, and also to draw if possible, general Washington from his position at the highlands. In this expedition, the British forces landed at West Haven, and by a circuitous march entered New Haven, after some opposition, where they destroyed a number of stores, and committed other outrages. The next day, they embarked, and proceeding westward, landed and burnt the towns of Fairfield and Norwalk, then returned to New York.

503. *The taking of Stoney Point.* The British troops having fortified Stoney Point, and garrisoned it with six hundred men, general Wayne was detached with a body of troops, to take it. Having performed a difficult march, he commenced the attack in the depth of night, at two different points, with unloaded muskets, depending on the bayonet alone for success. General Wayne was wounded, but the troops under the brave colonel Meigs and other officers, advanced amidst a tremendous fire of grape shot and musketry, removed the obstacles, and entered the works.

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The whole garrison surrendered amounting to more than five hundred men: the loss on each side being less than a hundred men, killed and wounded. An attempt soon after to surprise the fortified post at Paulus Hook, miscarried. A still more important expedition, planned by Massachusetts, in the same season, against the British post at Penobscot, failed with immense loss. A body of troops landed and laid siege to the fort, but a British naval force, under Sir George Collier, appearing at the harbor, the attempt was frustrated. The American armed ships, being, a frigate of thirty two guns, one of twenty, one of eighteen, several smaller ships, and twenty four transports, were burnt or sunk without offering any resistance to the enemy.

504. *Operations in South Carolina and Georgia.* General Lincoln had been appointed to the command of the southern American army, and the British forces had been reenforced. In May, general Ash was defeated by the enemy, under general Prevost, at Briar Creek, with the loss of one hundred and fifty men killed, and about the same number taken. Emboldened by this success, general Prevost contemplated to take possession of Charleston; but the most strenuous efforts of the governor of the state, the militia, and the commander of the regular forces defeated the attempt, and the British troops retired to the isles. In September, count d'Estaing arrived with his fleet from the West Indies, and it was determined to attack general Prevost at Savannah. At first a regular siege was begun, but the count, impatient of delay, urged an assault. On the 9th of October, an attempt was made to storm the works; both Americans and Frenchmen behaved with great gallantry, but were repulsed with the loss of more than a thousand men, among whom was count Polaski, a Polish officer in the American service.

505. *Expedition of General Sullivan.* To impress terror on the savages, and disable them in future from

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ravaging the frontiers, general Sullivan was sent in the summer of 1779, with a strong force, to destroy their towns. He entered the country of the six nations, destroyed forty villages with all the corn and their fruit trees, and returned with little loss. In this summer, the British troops evacuated Rhode Island, and the French fleet, after the repulse at Savannah, returned to the West Indies. The court of Spain acknowledged the independence of the United States, and sent a force which took possession of Florida, by the surrender of a British garrison. The British troops held Savannah, and the Americans, under general Lincoln, retired to Charleston. Thus ended the campaign of 1779.

506. *Taking of Charleston.* Sir Henry Clinton, finding it more easy to make an impression on the southern states, which were less populous than the northern, and being a level country, rendered the transportation of artillery less difficult, determined to make them the seat of war. Agreeable to this resolution, he sailed from New York, with a large force, in the severe winter of 1779–80; and after a tempestuous passage, in which he lost some of his transports, arrived at Savannah the latter part of January. From Savannah the army proceeded to Charleston, and in April laid siege to that city. The enemy made regular approaches, and finally being prepared to storm the town, general Lincoln was compelled to capitulate. About two thousand five hundred men, besides the militia and inhabitants, became prisoners, and all the cannon and military stores. This happened on the 12th of May 1780. General Clinton left lord Cornwallis to command the troops in the southern army, and returned to New York. Great numbers of the people in South Carolina, being left defenseless, returned to their allegiance, and the British commander represented the state as subdued.

507. *War in the Southern States.* No sooner was Charleston in the hands of the enemy, than disposi-

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tions were made to secure obedience in the interior country. For this purpose, a considerable force was sent to Camden, where the British commander, lord Rawdon, collected his stores, and took up his quarters. Many severe skirmishes took place between small parties. Col. Tarleton, an active partisan, commanding a body of British cavalry, defeated Col. Buford, and put most of his men to the sword. Col. Sumpter, of Carolina, collected a small band of men, and bravely attacked small parties of the enemy, thus reviving the drooping spirits of his countrymen. General Gates was sent to replace general Lincoln, in the chief command, and troops were collected to oppose the progress of the British forces.

508. *Battle at Camden.* Lord Cornwallis, hearing that General Gates was approaching Camden, repaired to that place to reenforce lord Rawdon. The two armies met on the 16th of August, and a severe action ensued. The American militia fled at the first fire, and could not be rallied; the regular American troops fought with great bravery, but were at last overcome and retreated, leaving their artillery, wagons, and two thousand stands of arms. The loss of the Americans was seven or eight hundred men, among whom was the baron de Kalbe, a Prussian, and the second officer in command. The British loss was three or four hundred men. The next day Col. Tarleton was detached to attack general Sumpter, who lay at Fishing Creek, with a considerable body of troops. Such was the celerity of Tarleton s movements, that he surprised general Sumpter, cut off his men from their arms, routed, killed and dispersed the whole party. General Gates, with the feeble remains of his army, retreated to Hillsborough, in North Carolina.

509. *Condition of the Carolinas, and the excursion to Springfield.* During the war in the southern states the inhabitants were in a condition of extreme distress. The patriots were proscribed, and their estate

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sequestered by the British commander. The country was overrun and exhausted of provisions; and inveterate hostilities were carried on between neighbors and former friends who had espoused different sides of the dispute. A large party of royalists, headed by major Ferguson and encamped on the confines of North Carolina, were attacked and most of them slain or taken prisoners by a band of patriotic volunteers. Lord Cornwallis, by the sickness of his troops, and the severe loss of men at Camden, was obliged to remain inactive. General Sumpter collected a body of volunteers, and continued to harrass the enemy and intercept their convoys. During these operations in Carolina, a body of five thousand troops under a Hessian general, passed into New Jersey, burnt a number of houses at Connecticut Farms, and the presbyterian church. In this excursion, the wife of Mr. Caldwell, a respectable clergyman, was shot as she sat with a child in her arms. in her own house. The enemy advanced to Springfield, a considerable part of which they burnt, but they met with such severe resistance from a small force under general Green, that they returned to New York.

510. *Finances of the United States.* There being no constitutional government, when the war began, and no power to tax the confederated colonies, the congress adopted the expedient of defraying the expenses of the war, by means of bills of credit. One emission after another was ushered into circulation, and none of it recalled by taxes, till such a quantity was emitted that its value depreciated to one fortieth part, and ultimately to one hundredth part of its nominal value; that is, it required one hundred dollars in paper, to purchase one dollar in specie. With this paper was the army paid. The soldiers had long been discontented, thus to lose their wages while serving their country; and in 1780, their murmurs riponed into open mutiny. But the punishment of

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the ringleaders and the expostulations of the officers, prevailed to bring them back to their duty.

511. *Arrival of a French squadron.* In July 1780, arrived at Newport, a French fleet under monsieur de Ternay, consisting of seven ships of the line, with frigates, and six thousand land forces commanded by general Rochambeau. The troops were landed, and the fortifications made strong. This gave new life to the American councils and arms; the army was reenforced, and dispositions made to strike an effectual blow. But suddenly the French fleet left the harbor and returned to France, without giving the least notice to General Washington; so that all hope of naval assistance vanished. The land forces remained and co-operated in the final reduction of the British forces in America: but General Washington was extremely angry and disappointed at the conduct of the French commander.

512. *Arnold's Treachery.* During these affairs, a plot of immense danger was happily discovered. General Arnold, after his wounds had in a manner disabled him, was appointed to a command in Philadelphia; where his oppressive and over bearing measures had provoked a severe inquiry into his conduct. A committee, appointed by congress to examine his accounts, had rejected many of them as unjust; and his severe invectives, on the occasion, and the charges against him, had subjected him to a trial by court martial, by which he was sentenced to be reprimanded. By these proceedings, Arnold was greatly exasperated, and he determined on revenge. General Washington still valued him for his bravery and his former military services, and intrusted him with the chief command at the important post at West Point. He took that opportunity to carry on a negotiation with the British commander in New York, for the surrender of the post into the hands of the enemy.

513. *Detection of the Plot.* For the purpose of

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concerting all the requisite measures, major Andre, adjutant general of the British army, proceeded to West Point in disguise, where he took plans of the fortresses, and agreed upon the time and manner of attack. He then received a passport from Arnold, and set out on his return to New York, under the name of Anderson. He had passed all the outposts of the American army, when riding along the road in Tarrytown, he was stopped by three militia men, who were on a scouting party. Major Andre, alarmed for his safety, offered his watch and a purse of gold, for permission to proceed, but the men refused the bribe, and seized him. The papers found in his boot evidenced his guilt, and he was condemned and exe-



CAPTURE OF ANDRE.

cuted. Every effort was made by the British commander in New York to obtain his release; but in vain. His life was forfeited by the laws of war. His fortitude and amiable deportment however endeared him to the officers of the American army, who regretted the necessity of his fate.

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514. *General Arnold's escape.* The news of the seizure of Andre, soon reached the ears of General Arnold, who leaving his family and effects, immediately fled and went on board the Vulture, a sloop of war, which the British commander had stationed near the American lines for the purpose of carrying on the negotiation. General Washington arrived in camp from Connecticut, just after Arnold had made his escape; and found the affairs of the garrison in disorder. He received a letter from Arnold requesting that his wife might be treated with respect, and suffered to join him, or return to Philadelphia, and also that his baggage might be sent to him; which requests were granted. Arnold received the reward of his treason, and the commission of brigadier-general in the British army. He then issued a paper explaining the motives of his conduct, and had the impudence to publish an address to the American army, inviting officers and soldiers to betray their country; but without the least success.

515. *Operations in Carolina in the winter of* 1780–81. In the autumn of 1780, general Green, an excellent officer, was appointed to the command of the American forces in Carolina. He was accompanied by Col. Morgan, an active officer, who commanded a body of riflemen. The first action, after this appointment, was fought at the Cowpens, where Col. Morgan was attacked by Col. Tarleton, who had the advantage of numbers. Col. Morgan placed a body of militia in front of a wood, while his best troops were drawn up in the rear and out of sight. The first line gave way, and as Tarleton pursued them, the other line opened to let his men advance, until they were placed between two fires, when a deadly discharge from Morgan's troops threw the enemy into irrecoverable disorder. The enemy lost three hundred men killed and five hundred prisoners. The loss of the Americans was twelve men killed and sixty wounded.

516. *Battle near Guilford Court-House.* After the

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disaster at the Cowpens, lord Cornwallis determined to intercept Col. Morgan, and retake the prisoners, but a heavy rain during the night, swelled the rivers so as to prevent his design. To enable his troops to march with more celerity, he destroyed all his heavy baggage. At length general Green joined Col. Morgan, with additional forces, and lord Cornwallis, having collected his troops, the armies met near the court-house in Guilford. The action was fought on the 15th of March 1781. The Americans amounted to between four and five thousand men, but mostly militia, or inexperienced soldiers. The British force consisted of about half the number of veterans. The battle was fought with great bravery and effect; for although lord Cornwallis remained master of the field, his losses, in a country where he could not recruit his army, had the effect of a defeat. His loss was more than five hundred men. That of the Americans could not be less.

517. *Subsequent operations.* Lord Cornwallis not being able to pursue his advantages, general Green marched to Camden, where lord Rawdon was fortified, with nine hundred men. The British commander sallied out and attacked him; victory for some time hung in suspense; but the retreat of two companies, gave the British the advantage. The loss on each side was between two and three hundred men. General Green did not remain inactive; a number of posts, in different parts of the country, fell successively into his power, with supplies of military stores. General Green laid siege to Ninety Six, a strong post; but lord Rawdon, with a reenforcement, advancing to its relief, general Green attempted to take it by storm. But the attempt failed, with the loss of one hundred and fifty men.

518. *Battle at the Eutaw Springs.* Many skirmishes and movements took place in the summer of 1781; but on the 19th of September, general Green with about two thousand men, attacked Col. Stewart, at

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the Eutaw Springs. After a severe fire between advanced parties, the action became general, and the militia gave way. General Green then ordered the regular troops of the Maryland and Virginia lines, to advance with trailed arms, and make a free use of the bayonet. A shower of musketry and a severe cannonade made no considerable impression on this body; they attacked the enemy and won the victory. Five hundred men were taken prisoners, and the whole loss of the British was estimated at eleven hundred. Col. Washington, bravely advancing to dislodge a party of the enemy from a picketed garden and house, was wounded and taken prisoner. Col. Stewart, the next day, abandoned the place and retreated towards Charleston.

519. *Arnold's exploits in Virginia.* Early in 1781, general Arnold was dispatched with about seventeen hundred men, to make a diversion in Virginia, by calling the attention of the Virginians from lord Cornwallis. General Philips, with two thousand troops, was sent from New York to reenforce him. General Washington detached General Lafayette, with two thousand men, to oppose the enemy in Virginia; and a small naval force under de Ternay, sailed from Newport to block up the Chesapeak and take the British troops. An inconsiderable action took place between this fleet and a division of the British ships under admirals Arbuthnot and Graves. But the French ships returned, and left the British squadron to succor the army in Virginia. The British troops were employed for a long time without much interruption, in destroying the warehouses, tobacco, mills and other property on James' river and the Appomattox, and immense was the destruction of property.

520. *Junction of the British forces in Virginia.* After the severe action at Guilford, lord Cornwallis retreated to Wilmington in North Carolina. His troops suffered every possible distress from the want of provisions and clothing, and the extreme heat of

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the climate. He therefore determined to force a march through a most inhospitable desart, and join the troops under general Philips in Virginia. He arrived in May, and took the command of the united forces. General Philips died of a fever, before his arrival. After some predatory warfare, lord Cornwallis encamped at Yorktown, and Gloucester Point on York river, which affords deep water for shipping, and there he fortified his camps; the main body of the army being on the south side of the river at Yorktown, and his whole force being about seven thousand men.

521. *Events which led to the attack on Lord Cornwallis.* In the year 1780, a plan of combined operations against the British forces in America, was preconcerted by general Washington, at Wethersfield, in conjunction with general Rochambeau, general Knox and other generals. General Washington was induced to this, by the absolute necessity of obtaining some splendid advantage, to revive the expiring hopes and languid exertions of the American states. The point of attack was not absolutely determined; for it was not possible to foresee where the enemy would be most susceptible of impression. But the general determined to be prepared, either for an attack on New York, if the prospect of success should be clear; or upon any other impressible point. For this purpose great exertions were made, in collecting artillery, boats, stores and provisions. At the same time, the general gave out and caused it to be understood by all ranks of officers, civil and military, that New York was to be the place of attack, with a view to induce the eastern and middle states to exert themselves in furnishing supplies. After lord Cornwallis, had collected a large body of forces in Virginia, and general Washington had determined that it would be best to attack *his* army, he wrote letters to general Green and others, stating his intention to attack New York, and contrived to have these letters intercepted

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by the British commander, in New York, who was completely deceived, and prevented from sending succors to lord Cornwallis.

522. *Siege of Yorktown.* After making a show of attacking New York, general Washington suddenly quitted this camp, crossed the Hudson with his army, and passing through New Jersey and Pennsylvania, speedily arrived at the head of Elk, where a part of his forces embarked and sailed to Virginia; the rest marched by land. At this moment, general Washington heard of the arrival of the French fleet under count de Grasse, in the Chesapeak. Admiral Graves made an attempt to relieve lord Cornwallis; and his fleet had a slight engagement with the French fleet, near the capes of the Chesapeak; but without the intended effect. A body of the French troops was landed, to co-operate with the Americans. The whole combined force under general Washington, amounting to twelve or thirteen thousand men, besides the militia, closely invested the British army in Yorktown.

523. *Burning of New London.* No sooner had Sir Henry Clinton discovered that general Washington had drawn off his forces towards Virginia, than he sent general Arnold on another expedition for plunder and destruction. On the 6th of September 1781, the British forces landed near New-London in Connecticut, in two divisions; one took fort Trumbull, without difficulty, the other met with a brave resistance from colonel Ledyard and about seventy men suddenly collected from the town of Groton. The assailants lost their commanders; colonel Eyre was wounded and major Ferguson killed; but they took the fort by assault, and slaughtered the garrison after they had surrendered. Colonel Ledyard was slain with his own sword. The party then proceeded to burn the town of New London; sixty dwelling houses, eighty-four stores, and a great amount of property were devoted to the flames. A part of the

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shipping was sent up the river and saved; the rest was destroyed.

524. *Surrender of Lord Cornwallis and his army.* The British army being blockaded by sea, the American army opened the first batteries upon them, early in October, with such effect as to silence part of their artillery. Two British redouts, which annoyed the operations, were assaulted and taken, one by colonel Hamilton, at the head of a party of American troops, who attacked with unloaded arms and carried the works with little loss; the other by a detachment of French troops, who suffered considerable loss. The second parallel was begun on the night of the 11th; and such was the tremendous effect of the American artillery, that the British works were demolished, their guns silenced, and no hope of relief or escape remained. On the 17th of the month, lord Cornwallis proposed a cessation of hostilities, and on the 19th articles of capitulation were signed, by which the British army, military stores, and shipping fell into the hands of general Washington.



SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS.

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525. *Effects of the Capture of Lord Cornwallis on the Americans.* As the reduction of this division of the British forces in America, was considered as deciding the war and establishing the independence of the United States, the news was every where received with emotions of inexpressible joy. Divine service was performed in all the American brigades, and the commander in chief, recommended that all who were not on duty, should join in the worship, with a serious deportment, and that sensibility of heart, due to the recollection of the surprising and particular interposition of Providence. Congress resolved to go in procession to church, and make public acknowledgments of gratitude to heaven for the singular event. A public thanksgiving was recommended, and the day was observed throughout the United States. General Washington and the French commanders received the thanks of Congress; and the American commander in chief liberated all persons under arrest, that all might partake in the general joy.

526. *Consequences of the surrender of Cornwallis.* The reduction of so large a part of the British forces in the United States, convinced the British nation of the utter impracticability of conquering the country. The combined forces of France and Spain had taken Minorca from Great Britain: some of the isles in the West Indies, and some of their possessions on the south American coast, had shared the same fate.—Admiral Rodney, in 1782, obtained a most important naval victory over the French fleet under the count de Grasse, which in some degree, balanced the losses of Great Britain; but the vast expense of money and lives in the contest induced the British nation to wish for peace. A change of ministry took place, which was favorable to the United States, and measures were taken in 1782, to open a negotiation. General Carleton was appointed to the command in America, and arrived at New-York in May, with in-

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structions to propose an accommodation. At length the ministers of the several powers at war signed provisional articles of peace on the 20th of November 1782, by which the independence and sovereignty of the United States were acknowledged. On the 3d day of September 1783, was signed a definitive treaty, which secured to the United States the objects for which they had contended, and gave them a rank among nations.

527. *The Disbanding of the Army.* When the American army was to be disbanded, new and serious difficulties arose concerning the payment of the arrears of their wages and rations. The want of resources to carry on the war, and the want of a supreme power to lay and collect taxes, had driven congress to the expedient of emitting vast sums in bills of credit, which depreciated almost to no value; and the interruption of commerce, with a deluge of paper currency, banished for a time, all gold and silver from circulation. In this state of the public treasury, the army was ill paid and clothed, and great discontents occasioned the resignation of officers, and rendered it impracticable to recruit the army.

528. *Provision made for the Army in* 1778. In January 1778, general Washington addressed Congress in favor of the army; representing that although the effusion of zeal, at the beginning of the contest, had induced officers and men to enter into the service without much regard to pecuniary considerations, yet finding it to continue longer than they had at first expected, and that they were to expose their lives, health and estates to destruction, by their patriotism, without a prospect of a competent future subsistence, their ardor had abated, and a disinclination to the service prevailed; that resignations of commissions were frequent, and that reliance could not be placed on men disaffected to the service. He therefore urged congress to make provision, to secure them and their families from future want and dis-

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tress. Convinced of the propriety of this measure, congress on the 15th of May, 1778, resolved to grant half pay for seven years after the war, to the commissioned officers; and to non-commissioned officers and privates, eighty dollars, at the end of the war, in addition to their pay and rations.

529. *Effects of this Grant, and the Extension of it.* The half pay resolve quieted the apprehensions of the army, in a good degree, and the service was for a time, performed with zeal and alacrity. But the continual depreciation of the currency in which the troops received their wages, deprived them of a great part of their real dues, and neither officers nor soldiers could maintain a decent appearance, in point of dress, while the families of many were suffering at home. These circumstances, with the derangement of a great number of officers, in 1780, occasioned by the necessity of reducing the number of regiments, for want of their complement of men, gave rise to great discontents in the army, and called for a further interposition of congress. Upon the representation of these facts, by the commander in chief, congress on the 21st of October, 1780, resolved, that the officers should be entitled to half pay for life.

530. *State of the Army in* 1783. Reposing confidence in the faith of the United States, the officers of the army remained quiet, until the close of the war. A mutiny among the soldiers, in two or three instances, occasioned some alarm, but produced no serious consequences. After the army returned from Yorktown, and encamped at Newburgh, on the Hudson, a cessation of hostilities gave them leisure to contemplate their sufferings, their losses by paper currency, and their future prospects. At that time, a report was circulated that congress did not intend to fulfill their engagements respecting half pay. They therefore deputed a committee of officers to wait on congress, with an address and petition, representing their hardships, and embarrassments; that in 1777, the

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had been paid in dollars when worth four pence only; and that their subsequent arrearages had not been liquidated. They therefore requested an adjustment, and payment or security for the balances due. And as the half pay resolves had given uneasiness, by establishing a precedent of *pensions*, they requested a sum in gross in lieu of half pay for life.

531. *Proceedings of Congress on this Memorial.* In compliance with the wishes of the army, congress on the 25th of January, resolved that the superintendent of finance, should pay such part of the arrears due to the army, as the finances would permit; that the states should be called on to complete a settlement with their respective troops, to the first of August 1780; that the troops had an undoubted right, with all public creditors, to expect security for the payment of arrears, and that congress would make every effort in their power, to obtain from the states substantial funds for the whole debt. The proposition for commuting half pay during life, for a specific sum, was referred to a committee to examine the value of annuities, and on their report a resolution was proposed granting five years full pay in lieu of half pay for life, but it did not pass. On the 8th of February the committee made a report of these proceedings to the army.

532. *Reception of this Report by the Army.* As congress had little money and no means of raising it, except the old expedient of issuing bills, the army had little hope of any immediate relief adequate to their wants; and conscious of their fidelity and meritorious services, they could not patiently brook the delays attending the settlement of their accounts. On the 10th of March a notification was circulated, without a name, requesting a meeting of the general and field officers, with one from each company, to consider the communications from congress, and what measures it would be proper to take. With this notice was circulated an anonymous address, couched

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in a style of great energy, and calculated to awaken in the army the keenest sensations of indignity for the wrongs done to the officers and soldiers. The impression on the army was correspondent to the spirit of the address, and threatened a violent commotion.

533. *Conduct of General Washington in that Crisis.* The commander in chief, with that coolness which never forsook him, and with a moderation adapted to allay the irritations of the moment, issued the next day, a notice reproving with mildness, the proposal for an irregular, unauthorized meeting, and requesting the officers to meet on a different day. On which a second address from the same unknown pen appeared, in which the author indirectly intimated that the design of his first address was not to excite to violence, but to arouse the army to assume a more bold and manly tone, in their solicitations for justice. The addresses were communicated to congress, and no doubt produced in a degree, the effect intended; for on the 22d of March, a resolution passed for a grant of five years pay, in lieu of half pay for life. At the meeting of the officers in pursuance of the general's request, the commander in chief addressed them in a masterly manner, reprobating the anonymous address, recommending peaceable measures, and pledging himself to exert his utmost ability to procure full justice to be done to the army. The officers voted him an address of thanks, and resolved that they continued to have unshaken confidence in the justice of congress and their country. Thus was dissipated one of the most menacing storms that ever hung over America.

534. *Dismission of the Army.* At the moment this storm had subsided, news was received that the preliminaries of peace were signed, and on the 26th of May 1783, congress resolved that the commander in chief be instructed to grant furlows to the non-commissioned officers and soldiers, who were engaged in service during the war, who should be discharg-

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ed as soon as the definitive treaty should be concluded, with a due proportion of commissioned officers. Upon the publication of that resolve, the officers presented a spirited address to the commander in chief, expressing their sufferings and wants, and their severe disappointment, as well as astonishment, at being disbanded without a settlement of their accounts, and a provision for payment of the balances. They entreated him to use his influence with congress to obtain a suspension of their order, and that no officer or soldier should be obliged to receive a furlow, until congress could be made acquainted with the wretched condition into which they should be plunged, if compelled to retire from the army, without a settlement of their accounts, a payment of the balances, or any evidence of what was due to them. The request could not be granted, but the general in his reply, stated that a partial payment was soon to be made, and that every thing practicable should be done, to bring their accounts to a final adjustment.

535. *Mutiny in Pennsylvania.* As it was not possible for congress to make full payment to the army, nor to liquidate their accounts in a short time, and as it was important to reduce the current expenditures, the officers and soldiers enlisted for the war, were dismissed with three months pay, in notes given by the financier, payable in six months. This measure excited great discontents, and in Pennsylvania occasioned a mutiny. In June 1783, about eighty soldiers, belonging to a body then stationed at Lancaster, deserted their officers, and under the conduct of their sergeants, marched to Philadelphia, where they were joined by two or three hundred soldiers from the barracks in that city. On the 21st of the month, they proceeded in a body, and surrounding the state-house, where congress and the executive council of Pennsylvania were sitting, placed guards at the doors, sent a message to the council complaining of the non-settlement of their accounts, and the want of pay, and behaved in a menacing and disorderly manner.

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536. *Proceedings of Congress on this occasion.*—Congress, not choosing to deliberate when surrounded by armed men, adjourned and retired. After the mutineers had withdrawn, congress appointed a committee to wait on the executive council of Pennsylvania, requesting their efficacious aid in securing the safety of their persons, and preventing such indignities to the authority of the United States. The committee reported, that they had not received satisfactory assurances of the prompt and adequate exertions of that state, for supporting the dignity of the federal government. Congress therefore adjourned their sittings to Trenton, where they continued for some time; and to put a stop to such outrages, general Washington was requested to send a body of troops to Philadelphia. Accordingly a detachment of fifteen hundred men was sent from head-quarters; which, with other measures, quelled the mutiny. The accounts of the army had been put in a train for settlement, persons were appointed to adjust and ascertain the demands on the United States, whether for services or supplies; and certificates, which acquired the name of *final settlements*, were given as evidences of the balances due from the public. In these was included five years pay to the officers, in lieu of half pay for life, and eighty dollars allowance to the soldiers beyond their wages.

537. *Popular Discontents on account of the grant to the Officers.* Scarcely was the army dismssed, when attempts were made in some parts of the country, to excite uneasiness among the people, on account of the five years extra pay to the officers, called commutation. The uneasiness was first manifested and most violent in the New England states, and especially in Connecticut, where the symptoms of it became public in July 1783. Town meetings were held and resolutions passed, expressive of the people's disapprobation of the act of congress. It was said that the half pay, and the five years pay in lieu of it, were

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in the nature of pensions, which are always odious among a free people; that the officers of the army had taken advantage of the necessities of the country, to extort the promise of this gratuity from Congress; that the army had not suffered more than the people; that many of the officers had raised large estates; and all of them been amply rewarded by extra grants and bounties.

538. *Progress of these discontents.* The publication of the town meeting resolves served to augment and spread with rapidity the popular discontents; and in autumn the crisis became alarming. A proposal for a convention of deputies from the several towns in Connecticut, to be held at Middletown, was circulated with great success, and on the 3d day of September delegates from twenty-eight towns, assembled at that place. For want of a full representation of the state, which was ascribed to the short notice given, they adjourned to the thirtieth of the same month. On that day the convention met and about fifty towns were represented. This body, having agreed on an address to the legislature, adjourned to the 10th of December; when few members attending, they adjourned to the third Tuesday in March 1784. On that day a few delegates attended and originated an inflammatory address to the people, complaining of the officers of the army, and pronouncing the grant of five years extra pay, an unconstitutional act.

539. *Result of the Popular Proceedings.* During the democratic effervescence in Connecticut, congress were accused as usurpers and tyrants; the proposal of a general impost to supply the public treasury was reprobated as dangerous to the sovreignty of the several states; the society of the Cincinnati was represented as an aristocracy, aiming to establish orders of nobility; and a thousand bugbears were held up to view, to terrify weak and discontented minds. An attempt was made to circulate a ticket containing the names of new men for the upper house, and the old,

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firm, respectable men who had stood at the helm, during the tempest of the revolution, were held up to view as objects of suspicion. But the more steady and discerning part of the people gave no heed to these democratic jealousies; they represented, in the papers, the true state of facts; that the army had suffered by the depreciation of paper bills; that they endured hunger and cold, for want of their just dues; and that the grant of congress was essential to the very existeuce of an army. Such representations had the desired effect, and before the session of the legislature in May 1784, the towns had become sensible of their error, and dismissed their delegates.

540. *Discontents in Massachusetts.* In the beginning of 1784, an attempt waa made by some towns in Massachusetts, to collect the sense of the people in an irregular manner, as had been done in Connecticut. In February, a committee of the towns of Wrentham and Medway, with the advice of some other towns, wrote a circular letter, proposing a meeting of delegates from all the towns in Suffolk county, to take into consideration the commutation act, and the proposed general impost. On that occasion the town of Boston held a meeting and agreed to a letter which was sent to the committee in answer to their circular letter; expressing the entire disapprobation of the proposed county meeting, as irregular and unconstitutional. They reprobated the baleful influence of such disorderly proceedings, and manifested an acquiescence in the measures of congress. The spirit of opposition however infected the people and the legislature of that state for some time, until the good sense of wise and moderate men prevailed over the intemperate zeal of popular leaders.

541. *General Washington's Circular Letter.* In June 1783, the commander of the American army wrote a circular letter to the governors of the several states, congratulating them on the glorious termination of the war, and offering them his sentiments on

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some important subjects. In this letter, he represented that the republic of the United States was founded in an enlightened period of the world, when the rights of men were well understood; when science, commerce, refinement of manners, liberality of sentiment, and above all the pure and benign light of revelation had meliorated the state of mankind, and increased the blessings of society; for these reasons, if the citizens of the United States should fail to be free and happy, the fault would be entirely their own; that the cup of blessings was offered to them, but it depended on themselves whether to be respectable and prosperous, or contemptible and miserable; and whether the revolution should be a blessing or a curse. In this address, he recommended an indissoluble union of the states under one federal head; a sacred regard to public justice; the adoption of a peace establishment, and the cultivation of pacific and friendly dispositions among the people. He declared also his intention of retiring to private life, which he had left with regret, and for which he never ceased to sigh.

512. *General Washington's Farewell Address to the Army.* The congress, in consequence of the definitive treaty of peace disbanded the army by proclamation, dated October 18, 1783. On this occasion, the commander in chief, on the second of November, addressed to the army, his farewell orders, in which he recapitulated the principal events of the war, the disadvantages under which it was conducted, and the perseverance of the troops under the severest sufferings from hunger, nakedness, toils, dangers and inclement seasons. He gave them the strongest assurances that their services would be rewarded, and recommended to them to carry into civil life the most conciliating dispositions, and the virtues of good citizens. He expressed his thankfulness to the officers and soldiers for their zeal, bravery, fortitude and patience, and, dropping the curtain of separation, he commended them, in a most affectionate manner, to

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the notice of a grateful country, and the protection o heaven.

543. *General Washington's Resignation.* On the twenty-third day of December 1783, the commander in chief of the American army waited on Congress, then sitting at Annapolis, to resign his commission. On that affecting occasion, the general addressed the president, congratulating Congress on the auspicious issue of the war, and the confirmation of the sovereignty and independence of the United States. He expressed his grateful sense of the assistance and support he had received from the country, his obligations to the army, and to the gentlemen who composed his family, whom he commended to the notice of Congress. He then commended the dearest interests of his country to the holy keeping of the Supreme Disposer of events, took an affectionate farewell of the august council of America, under whose orders he had acted, delivered his commission to the president, and took leave of all public employments. The president rose, and with a heart almost too full for utterance, reciprocated the general's congratulations, and with the most ardent expressions of gratitude for his services, and affection for his person, commended his precious life to the fostering care of heaven. The tears of spectators evidenced their sensations at the sublime spectacle of the great Washington, resigning his command, and retiring, laden with honors, to the peaceful shades of Mount Vernon.

544. *Cincinnati.* During the negotiations for peace, the officers of the army formed themselves into a society, to which they gave the name of *Cincinnati*, after the celebrated Roman, who was summoned from his plow, to take command of the armies of the Republic, and after defeating his enemies and liberating the state from danger, returned to the cultivation of his farm. The objects of this association were declared to be, to perpetuate the memory of the revolution and the friendship of the officers; to preserve

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inviolate the exalted rights and liberties of human nature; to promote and cherish union and national honor between the states; and to form a fund for the relief of officers or their families who should come to want. For this purpose, every officer deposited a month's pay, in a common stock, which was put to interest. The honor was made hereditary in the male issue of the officers, and in default of such issue, might be assigned to collateral heirs. Distinguished men, not belonging to the army, might be elected honorary members. The badge of the order was a gold medal suspended by a blue ribin.

545. *Popular jealousy against this Society.* The association of the Cincinnati was published at a time when the people of the United States were oppressed with taxes, and irritated at the grant of extra pay to the army. The universal jealousy of equal rights, which the leaders of the revolution had found it necessary to foster and cultivate, was alarmed at every thing that bore the semblance of distinction. At this time a writer of considerable eminence in Carolina published a pamphlet, in which he labored to prove that the society was intended by some of its artful framers to lay the foundation of an order of nobility; that it contained in it the elements of such an order and would certainly result in the establishment of it. Whatever truth there might have been in these charges, the publication had a considerable effect, in augmenting the flames of popular discontent.

546. *Alteration of their Constitution.* At a meeting of delegates from the several state societies, [which were composed of the officers of each state,] held at Philadelphia in May 1784, general Washington attended and was appointed president. To obviate objections against this society, and allay the popular uneasiness, it was judged expedient to amend the constitution of the society, and expunge the most objectionable articles, and especially that which rendered the honor hereditary. On this occasion, the

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society published an address to the state societies, in which they declared, and appealed to heaven for the sincerity of their declaration, that their intentions were pure: that as their views had been misrepresented, they would give another proof that the officers were among the most faithful citizens, and therefore they had agreed to a constitution to which there could be no reasonable objection. By this constitution, the officers are formed into a general society, and the officers of each state into a state society, whose annual meetings for the choice of officers are on the anniversary of independence. By this institution, the friendship contracted in the army, is preserved, and the interest of the funds benevolently applied to the relief of indigent members or their families.

547. *Weakness of the Confederation.* In 1778, a plan of confederation and perpetual union was formed by congress and proposed to the several states for acceptance. Most of the states acceded to it without great delay; but on account of some advantages, which that plan was calculated to afford to the states possessing unappropriated lands, the state of Maryland, which possessed no such land, at first declined accepting it; and did not ratify it until March 1781. In the mean time, the states were compelled by external danger, to act in concert; and the recommendations of congress were observed by the states, and usually carried into effect by laws enacted by the several legislatures. But no sooner were the states released from the pressure of dangers, than the weakness of the federal compact began to appear. The states were no longer anxious to sustain the authority of congress, whose resolutions were disregarded, or at least not enforced. Congress had no power to lay taxes to supply the treasury of the United States; the sums voted for public service were apportioned upon each state, to be raised in the manner the legislature should prescribe. But the states soon be-

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came delinquent; the treasury was not supplied, and no provision was made for paying the interest of the public debt.

548. *Expedients to raise Money.* Congress, finding the requisitions of money from the states, altogether ineffectual, recommended to the several legislatures to grant to congress a power to lay and collect an impost on imported commodities, amounting to five per cent. Most of the states readily complied, and passed an act granting the power required. But Rhode-Island, an importing state, apprehensive that such a grant would lessen the advantages of her trade, declined passing an act for the purpose, and by that means, defeated the only practicable plan of replenishing the federal treasury. New-York afterwards joined in opposition to the measure, and rendered all prospect of a revenue hopeless. In this situation, the authority of Congress was reduced to a name, and the confederation to a rope of sand. The interest of the public debt could not be paid, and congress issued certificates of interest, called *idents:* but the certificates, both for principal and interest, during the extinction of public credit, depreciated to one eighth of their real value. Two hundred millions of dollars, in bills of credit, had been issued by congress, but these had sunk to no value and ceased to circulate.

549. *Paper Currencies.* As the expenses of the war, and the destruction of commerce, had rendered people poor, involved them in debt, and reduced them to great distress, the legislatures of some of the states resorted to the old expedient of bills of credit. Large sums were issued; in some states the bills were loaned to the inhabitants on mortgages of real estate; in others they were circulated under the compulsion of tender laws; in most of them, the bills depreciated and occasioned numerous frauds. Other states, avoiding the evils of a paper currency, suspended the collection of debts for a limited time, or made various

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commodities a legal tender in discharge of debts. In some states the bills sunk not more than ten per cent; in others, to almost nothing; and being limited in circulation, to the bounds of states, were extremely inconvenient as a medium of business.

550. *Public Creditors.* No fund having been provided by congress for the payment of the principal or interest of the federal debt, the certificates lost their value, and the creditors of the United States were left in a hopeless condition. Such of them as were possessed of other property, were not reduced to wretchedness; but many of the officers and soldiers, or their widows and orphan children, were deprived of the means of subsistence. In this distressed condition, many were compelled to sell their certificates at any price that was offered; and as it was doubtful whether congress would ever have the ability to redeem them, few persons would risk to purchase them. In this state of public credit, particular men made it their business to buy and sell the certificates, and thus acquired the name of speculators. This irregular business continued until the debt was funded; but in the mean time, most of the army notes had been sold at about a sixth or an eighth of their nominal value. Thus the brave men, who had endured hardships, cold and hunger, who had fought the battles of the country, and repeatedly received solemn assurances of ample recompense for their toils; were forced to sell their securities for a mere trifle, to save their families from starving.

551. *Trade of the United States.* During the three last years of the war, when continental bills had ceased to circulate, large quantities of gold and silver had been introduced into the country, by the French army, and an illicit trade to Spanish America. No sooner was peace proclaimed, than a vast importation of British goods was begun; and was greatly encouraged by the real wants of America, and the superabundance of goods in Great Britain.

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This trade was at first lucrative to both parties. but in a short time occasioned a scarcity of specie, which had been remitted in ship loads to Great Britain for goods. This evil was rendered the more durable, by the restrictions laid on the trade of the United States to the West Indies; for Great Britain, enforcing her navigation laws, shut her ports against American ships, or laid enormous duties on our most valuable exports.

552. *Effects of these Measures.* The restrictions on our trade, and the indiscreet importations of British goods on credit, in the course of two or three years, totally exhausted the country of money, and the merchants could not possibly make remittances to meet their engagements. Hence proceeded numberless bankruptcies among the American merchants which caused great failures also in England; multitudes were ruined in both countries, and then followed great distresses, an annihilation of private credit and mercantile confidence. To remedy these evils, the state legislatures adopted the most pernicious measures. Some of them expected relief in emissions of bills of credit; some of them attempted to retaliate, and imposed restraints on the British trade to this country, to induce the ministry to relax the rigor of her navigation laws, and enter into a commercial treaty with the United States. But at the same time, the neighboring states opened their ports to all the world, and counteracted the operation of such restraints. In this miserable, disjointed condition, the state sovereignties thwarted each other's schemes, the dignity of the union was lost in the narrow views of petty state rivalries, our national character was degraded, the United States became a jest and a byword among nations, and were threatened with civil commotions, of the most formidable nature.

553. *Insurrection in Massachusetts.* During the extinction of the authority of congress, Massachusetts made an effort to maintain her credit, and laid a very

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heavy tax to satisfy her creditors. As the country had not recovered from the distresses of the war; as trade and manufactures had declined, and the habits of the people had become luxurious and licentious, by means of a liberal credit of goods, and a disorganized state of the government, the measures of the legislature were found to favor more of a zeal for doing justice, than of expediency. The people opposed the tax; in some parts of the state, county meetings were held, and abusing the privilege of petitioning for a redress of grievances, they proceeded to combine their scattered forces; the people obstructed the sitting of courts, and finally took arms in opposition to the laws of the state. Some skirmishing ensued, and several persons were killed; while in some counties, the friends of the government were robbed and plundered. The prudent and conciliating measures of governor Bowdoin and his council, seconded by an armed force under general Lincoln, in the winter of 1786, gradually subdued the spirit of opposition, and restored the authority of the laws.

554. *First attempts to establish a more effectual government.* Discerning men, before the conclusion of of the war, were convinced that the confederation was defective and utterly insufficient to accomplish the ends of a national union. In February 1783, a merchant of Philadelphia published a pamphlet on the subject; in which he clearly proved the necessity of a new constitution which should divide congress into two houses, and give them more ample powers. The events of a few years demonstrated the opinions of that discerning writer. In the June following, general Washington, in his letter to the several governors, urged the necessity of enlarging the powers of congress. These recommendations were disregarded, until the public calamities became urgent, and a resort to arms become the theme of conversation, and the subject of secret deliberations. In the spring of 1785; a pamphlet proposing distinctly a new consti-

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tution of government for the United States, was carried by the writer to Mount Vernon, and presented to general Washington. That gentleman referred the arguments on the subject to a member of the legislature of Virginia. About the close of that year, a proposition was made and carried in the legislature to appoint commissioners, to form a system of commercial regulations for the United States, and to request the other states to concur in the measure.

555. *Formation of the New Constitution.* In pursuance of the request of Virginia, some of the states appointed delegates who assembled at Annapolis, September 14, 1786. But on examining their commissions, it was judged that their powers were too limited to enable them to accomplish any desirable purpose. They therefore adjourned, with instructions to advise the states to appoint agents with more ample powers, to meet at Philadelphia the next year. Accordingly delegates from the several states assembled in that city in May 1787, and appointed the venerable Washington for their president. That gentleman had retired to his farm in 1783, with a fixed determination never more to engage in public affairs; but he was selected by Virginia as one of the delegates, on this important occasion, and pressed to accept the appointment. After four months' deliberation, the convention agreed to a frame of government for the United States, and recommended it to the several states for adoption.

556. *Ratification of the Federal Government.* The states referred the question of adopting the frame of government, to conventions appointed for that express purpose. On that occasion popular jealousy appeared in all its force. It was objected, that the plan of government proposed, abridged the states of their sovereignty, and amounted to a consolidation. This was a fruitful theme of declamation, notwithstanding all the calamities that had arisen from the jealousies and clashing interests of the states, and a

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want of uniformity in public measures. Many other objections were urged, especially in the large states. At length, however, the proposed frame of federal government was accepted and ratified in 1788, by eleven states, and became the constitution of the United States. The first convention in North Carolina rejected it; as did the town meetings to which it was referred in Rhode Island. But North Carolina acceded to it in November 1789, and Rhode Island in May 1790. The ratification of the constitution was celebrated in the large cities, with great joy and splendid exhibitions. A ship, the emblem of commerce, and stages for mechanical labor, the emblems of manufactures, were mounted on wheels and drawn through the streets, attended by immense processions of citizens arranged according to their professions; while bands of music, streaming flags and the roar of cannon, manifested the enthusiasm with which the people received the authority of the national government.

557. *Organization of the New Constitution.* According to the constitution, the several states elected their delegates to congress, and by a unanimous vote, general Washington was elected first president. With deep regret, that distinguished citizen was compelled, by the esteem and confidence of his fellow citizens, to leave his beloved retirement, and accept the high office of supreme magistrate. On the 30th of April 1789, he was inaugurated president of the United States. The ceremony was performed in the open gallery of the city hall in New York, in presence of a countless multitude of spectators; where the oath was administered to him by the chancellor of the state of New York. The importance of the act, the novelty of the scene, the dignity of the general's character, the gravity of his manner, and the reverence with which he took the solemn oath impressed upon the transaction a solemnity never before witnessed in America.

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QUESTIONS.

422. What jealousy did the English court entertain respecting the American colonies?

423. What steps were taken to prevent the independence of the colonies?

424. When were the colonies alarmed, and what relieved them?

425. What did Charles II. require of the colonies?

426. What was the navigation act, and how did it affect the colonies?

426. Which of the colonial governors first submitted to the act?

427. Who was sent from England to enforce the laws of trade? What measures did he pursure?

428. What king was favorable to the colonies?

429. What was the source of contention in New York?

430. What controversies existed between the governor of Pennsylvania and the assembly?

431. What occasioned contentions in Carolina?

432. When was the proprietors' charter annulled?

432. When did the crown purchase Carolina?

433. What were the remote causes of the revolution in America?

434. What were the Immediate causes of the revolution?

435. What was the stamp act, and why was it made?

436. How was the stamp act received in the colonies?

437. What reasons did the parliament urge for taxing the colonies?

438. What were the opinions and declarations of British statesmen on the subject of taxing the colonies?

439. Why did the colonies oppose the claims of Great Britain to tax the colonies?

440. What occasioned the repeal of the stamp act?

441. What further attempt was made by Great Britain to raise a revenue in the colonies?

442. What occasioned the smuggling of goods?

443. When did Great Britain first send a military force to Boston, and how many regiments? When was the sloop of war Gaspee burnt and where?

444. When was an act of parliament passed to send persons, charged with treason, to England for trial, and what effect had this act?

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445. When was the first blood shed by the troops in Boston? What was the cause? How many were killed?

446. When was the tea of the East India company destroyed, and how was it done?

447. What other measures did parliament pursue towards Massachusetts?

448. When was the act passed to shut the port of Boston? what was the effect?

449. What was the first step towards organizing opposition to the acts of Great Britain?

450. When did Governor Gage arrive in Boston?

451. What steps did the colonies pursue in this crisis?

452. What measures did Gov. Gage adopt?

453. How did the Provincial congress originate?

454. What steps were taken to unite the cololies?

454. When did the first general congress convene?

455. What were the first measures of the congress?

456. What effect had the measures of congress on the British parliament?

457. What was the condition of the parties, at the beginning of the revolutionary war?

458. What preparatory measures did the parliament adopt?

459. What were the preparatory measures of Congress?

460. When and where did the British troops first fire on the Americans? how many men were killed?

461. When and why did the British troops march to Concord? and what was the consequence?

462. When did Congress raise an army? How did they provide for paying the expenses of the war? When did they take the appellation of United Colonies?

463. What measures did Gov. Gage take after the skirmish at Concord?

464. How did the British attempt to intercept the works on Breed's [or Bunker's] Hill? What was the slaughter and the event of the battle?

465. Why did the British commander burn Charlestown? and what was the effect?

466. Who surprised and took Ticonderoga and Crown Point?

467. What were the measures of Congress after the first shedding of blood by the British troops?

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468. Who was appointed commander in chief of the American army, and when?

469. When and by whom was St. Johns taken?

470. By what way did the Americans march to Quebec? Who commanded them? What was the event of the attack?

471. When and by whom was Norfolk burnt?

472. When were the colonial governments dissolved?

473. How was Gen. Washington treated on his way to the army in Cambridge? What was the American army and how furnished?

474. When was Falmouth in Maine burnt? What was the effect? What supplies were obtained by privateers?

475. When was Boston evacuated by the British troops? and what was the cause?

476. How did Great Britain augment her army? What force was sent to conquer the colonies in 1776?

477. How were the minds of Americans prepared for the declaration of independence?

478. When were the colonies declared independent? Who made the motion in Congress?

479. Who commanded the attack on Sullivan's island, and how did it result?

480. After the defeat at Quebec, to what place did the Americans retreat, and what places did they fortify?

481. When did the British troops arrive in New York? Where did Gen. Washington erect fortifications?

482. Who had an interview with General Washington in New York? How did it terminate? What was the event of the battle on Long Island?

483. Hbw was the retreat from Long Island effected?

483. What was the fate of Captain Hale?

484. What attempt did Lord Howe make towards reconciliation? What was the result?

485. What was the fate of Colonel Knowlton? What part of New York was burnt?

486. To what part of the country did General Washington retreat? Where did he gain victories?

486. Where was General Mercer killed?

487. Where did the British troops winter after the campaign? What number of troops had General Wash-

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ington? When was General Washington invested with unlimited powers?

488. When were the stores at Peekskill and Danbury burnt? What general opposed the British at Danbury—and which was killed?

489. When did General Burgoyne cross the lake and the Americans abandon Ticonderoga?

490. When was the battle of Bennington, and what was the result?

491. Where and by what generals was Burgoyne first defeated?

492. Where and when was his final defeat and surrender?

493. When was fought the battle at Brandywine and what the result?

494. What was the event of the battle at Germantown?

495. When were commissioners sent by Great Britain to negotiate with Congress?

496. When was a treaty formed between France and the United States?

497. What was the result of the negotiation with the British commissioners?

498. When was fought the battle at Monmouth?

499. When did a French fleet arrive to aid America?

500. What were the principal events of 1778?

501. When and by what General was Savannah taken?

502. When and by whom was Portsmouth in Virginia invaded? Who took possession of Stony Point? Who invaded New Haven in 1779, and burnt Fairfield and Norwalk?

503. Who retook Stony Point? What was the fate of an expedition against a British post at Penobscot?

504. Who commanded the Americans in 1779? Who defeated Gen. Ash? When was an attempt made to take Savannah by storm? What Polish officer lost his life?

505. Who destroyed the Indian towns in 1779? When did Spain acknowledge the Independence of the United States?

506. Who took Charleston in 1780?

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507. What other events took place in Carolina? When did General Gates take the command of the southern troops?

508 When was the battle of Camden fought, and what Generals commanded? What was the result?

509. What was the condition of the Carolinas after that battle? When was Springfield in New Jersy attacked? What lady was killed in her own house?

510. What was the state of bills of credit in 1780? What caused a mutiny in the army?

511. When did a French fleet arrive under Ternay? What was done by the fleet?

512. When and how did General Arnold plot to deliver West Point to the British commander?

513. How was this plot detected, and who suffered death?

514. How did General Arnold escape?

515. When did General Green take command of the Southern army, and where was the first action?

515. When was fought the battle near Guilford Court House? Who commanded and what was the result.

517 When were the attacks on Lord Rawdon and at Ninety Six?

518. When was the battle at the Eutaw Springs and what the result?

519. What exploits did Arnold perform in Virginia? What opposition was made? What naval action took place?

520. Where did the forces under Lord Cornwallis, and General Philips unite? Where did Cornwallis encamp?

521. What events led to the attack on Cornwallis, and what preparatory measures were taken to deceive him?

522 By what rapid march did General Washington surprise the British General? And what event favored him?

523. When and by whom was New London burnt? What was the fate of Col Ledyard and his men in Groton?

524, 525. When did Lord Cornwallis surrender to General Washington, and what was the event? What

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were the proceedings of General Washington and of Congress, on that great event?

526. What were the consequences of the surrender of the British Army? When was the treaty of peace signed, by which Great Britain acknowledged our Independence?

527. What was the state of the army at the close of the war?

528. What extra grant did Congress make to the army, and why?

529. When did Congress grant half pay to the officers, and why?

530. Where was the army encamped after the capture of Cornwallis?

531. When did Congress commute or exchange half-pay for five years full pay to the Officers?

532. When and why was the army threatened with a commotion?

533. What was General Washington's conduct at that crisis?

534. When, and how was the army dismissed?

535. When and where was there a mutiny of the soldiers?

536. When and why did Congress remove to Trenton?

537. Where were great discontents excited by the grant of five years pay to the officers?

538, 539. What was done in Connecticut to oppose the extra pay to the army?

540. What measures were taken in Massachusetts?

541. When did General Washington send a circular to the Governors of the States?

542. When was the Army disbanded and what was the General's address to them?

543. When, where and to whom did General Washington resign his commission?

544. What was the origin of the Society of the Cincinnati, and what were its objects?

545. What was the effect of the formation of the society?

546. When did the Society of Cincinnati alter their constitution?

547. When was the first confederation formed? Was

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it carried into effect, and what was the consequence of its defects?

548. What measure did Congress recommend to raise money? Was it effectual?

549. What was the effect of issuing bills of credit?

550. What was the effect of the depreciation of bills and certificates given in payment?

551. What was the state of trade after the war?

552. What measures were taken by the states to supply the want of money?

553. What was the cause of an insurrection in Massachusetts?

554. What were the first attempts to obtain a more efficient government?

555. When, where and by whom was the present constitution of the United States formed?

556. How was the Constitution ratified? When was the ratification by eleven states, and how was the event received?

557. When was the constitution organized? Who was the first President? Where and how was he inaugurated?

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

558. *Different forms of Government.* In Asia, the governments are all despotic; whole nations being subject to the arbitrary will of one man, under the denomination of Emperor, Sultan, King, Nabob or other title. In Europe, some nations are governed by the absolute sway of Emperors or Kings; some are subject to a body of nobles; others are subjects of forms of government of a mixed character, consisting of a King, of nobles and representatives of the people. When the sole power of making laws is in the hands of one person, the government is called a monarchy, or an empire; the chief is called a monarch, emperor or autocrat; and the government is arbitra-

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ry or despotic. When the powers of government all center in a body of nobles, it is called an aristocracy, or oligarchy. The government of England is a mixed form, consisting of a King, lords and commons.

559. *Republican Government.* These United States present the first example, in modern times, of a government founded on its legitimate principles. By the laws of nature, reason and religion, all men are born with equal rights. Every person is equally entitled to the protection of his person, his liberty and his property; and of course is entitled to have a voice in forming the government by which this protection is to be secured. In this country, the people all enjoy these inestimable rights and privileges; and the constitution of the United States, formed by the delegates of the people, and ratified by the people represented in conventions, guaranties to them the enjoyment of their rights. This constitution is truly *republican*, and forms a splendid era in the history of man.

560. *Distribution of the powers of government.* In the constitution of the United States, as in most of those of the several states, the government is divivided into three branches, a House of Representatives, a Senate, and a President, or Executive power. The house of Representatives and the Senate form the *legislative* power, or power of enacting laws. The President is the chief magistrate, in whom is vested the power of *executing* the laws; that is, the power of enforcing them, or carrying them into effect. The reasons why the legislative power is vested in two branches or houses, are, that there may be a more full discussion of bills or proposed laws, for the purpose of ample deliberation, and a clear understanding of their nature and tendency; and also that one house may check, if necessary, any hasty or partial measures proposed by the other. The two houses are called the *Congress of the United States.*

561. *Article I.* The house of Representatives is

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composed of members chosen every second year, by the people of the several states. The citizens who have the right of choosing, are called *electors*; and to be electors, they must have the qualifications which entitle citizens to vote for representatives in the several states; such as suitable age, and character, and in some states, property. A representative in Congress must be twenty five years of age, and have been seven years a citizen of the United States; and at his election, must be a citizen of the state in which he is chosen. The reasons are obvious. The age of twenty five years is necessary to prevent young men, not mature in judgment, from being elected to one of the most important offices in government: and a man cannot represent a state, unless he is an inhabitant.

562. *Apportionment of Representatives.* The number of representatives in each state is according to the number of its free persons, and three fifths of all other persons or slaves, Indians not taxed being excluded. For the purpose of ascertaining the number of persons, a census or enumeration of inhabitants is taken every ten years; and Congress by law determine the number of inhabitants which entitles to a representative. This number is enlarged every ten years, to prevent the House of representatives from being too numerous. The House establishes rules of proceeding in conducting debates, and elects a speaker who presides for keeping order, and enforcing the rules.

563. *Senate.* The Senate of the United States, is composed of two senators from each state, chosen by its legislature, for six years, and each senator has one vote. The Senators are divided into three classes, and one class or third go out of office every two years, and the vacancies are supplied by new appointments. A senator must be thirty years of age and an inhabitant of the state, and he must have been a citizen of the United States nine years, at the time of his ap-

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pointment. The Vice President of the United States is President of the Senate, and has no vote, except when the votes of the Senate are equally divided. The smallest states have two Senators, and the largest have no more; the senators being considered as representatives of the *States*, rather than of the *people*.

564. *Distinct powers of the two houses.* The House of Representatives has the sole right of impeachment, that is, the right or power to accuse officers of the government for maladministration, or for crimes, offenses, or neglect of duty in their offices. The Senate has the sole right and power to try offenders impeached. Each House is the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members; each determines the rules of its proceedings, and punishes or expels its own members for disorderly conduct. Senators and representatives receive a compensation for their services which is ascertained by law. They are privileged from arrest, except for treason, felony or breach of the peace, during their attendance in the session, and in going to and returning from the same. Officers of government cannot hold a seat in either house.

565. *Money Bills.* All bills for raising a revenue must originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments to such bills, as in other cases. This restriction in regard to the raising of money, is founded on the principle that the House of Representatives is strictly the representation of the people, and is intended to prevent undue appropriation of money, which might be made by a House less dependent on the people. In Great Britain the right of originating money-bills is solely in the House of Commons; but for stronger reasons, as the House of Lords is a body wholly independent of the people, by hereditary right or royal grant of title.

566. *Mode of passing bills.* Bills when presented to either house must be read three times. On the

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first reading, no debate is had, but a vote is taken for a second reading; and on this reading, the bill, if opposed, is discussed, and then by vote is passed to a third reading, or rejected. Three readings, and regularly on different days, are required, and then if not rejected, the bill passes to be engrossed. It is then engrossed on parchment, and passed to be enacted. The bill is then presented to the President of the United States, whose signature completes the act, and the bill becomes a *law*. But if the President objects to it, he returns the bill to the house in which it originated, with his objections in writing; and the bill is reconsidered. If on reconsideration, two thirds of the members are in favor of it, it becomes a law; if not, it dies.

567. *Powers of Congress.* The powers of Congress are specified in the Constitution. They extend to the general concerns of the United States; leaving to the several states the right of making laws respecting their own local interests. The Congress can lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, pay the debts and provide for the defense and welfare of the United States; but all such duties must be uniform throughout the United States. Congress can borrow money, regulate commerce, coin money, establish post-offices and post roads, institute courts, declare war, raise and support armies, provide a navy, organize the militia, secure to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their writings and discoveries for a limited time, and punish crimes or a violation of their laws.

568. *Restrictions of power.* Congress cannot pass any *ex post facto* law, that is, they cannot pass a law to punish a crime after it has been committed; they cannot lay a direct tax, unless in proportion to the census or number of inhabitants; they cannot lay any tax or duty on exports; nor give any advantage to one state over another in commercial regulations; no money can be drawn from the treasury, but in

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consequence of an appropriation by law; no title of nobility can be granted, nor can any officer of the government accept any present, emolument, office or title from any King, prince or foreign state. No state can enter into any treaty, alliance or confederation; grant letters of mark and reprisal, coin money, emit bills of credit, make any thing except gold and silver a tender in payment of debts, or pass any law impairing the obligation of contracts; nor can it lay any imposts or duties on exports or imports without the consent of Congress

569. *Article II.* The executive power is vested in a President, who, with the Vice-President, is elected for the term of four years. These officers are chosen by electors appointed by the states in such manner as the legislatures prescribe. The number of electors in each state is equal to the joint number of Senators and representatives in that state. By an amendment to the constitution, the electors meet on the same day, in their respective states, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom must not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves. They must name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots, the person voted for as Vice President. They make a certified list of all persons voted for, and transmit the same to the President of the Senate, who opens the certificates, in the presence of both houses of Congress, and the votes are counted. The person who has a majority of all the votes is declared President; or if no person has a majority, then from the persons having the highest number of votes, not exceeding three, the House of Representatives elect a President by ballot. In this case the votes are taken by states, each state having one vote. If no person has a majority of votes for Vice President, then from the two highest on the list, the Senate elect one to be Vice-President.

570. *Qualifications of the President.* The Presi-

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dent must be a natural born citizen of the United States, or a citizen at the time the constiution was adopted: and no person is eligible to that office unless he is thirty years of age and has been fourteen years a resident of the United States. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation or inability to discharge the duties of the office, the powers of the President devolve on the Vice President. The President receives a compensation ascertained by law. He takes an oath to execute his office with fidelity, and to preserve, protect and defend the constitution, to the best of his ability.

571. *Powers and duties of the President.* The President is commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the states, when called into actual service of the United States. With the advice and consent of the Senate, he has power to make treaties; he nominates, and with the advice and consent of the Senate he appoints embassadors and other public ministers, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers whose appointments are not otherwise provided for by law. He fills vacancies in offices, which happen during the recess of the Senate, but their commissions expire at the end of the next session. He has power to convene Congress on extraordinary occasions, and it is his duty to give information to Congress of the state of the Union, to recommend measures to their consideration, and in general to take care that the laws are faithfully executed.

572. *Article III. Judiciary.* The judicial power is that which consists in courts of law, appointed to try and determine causes between individual persons and corporations, The Constitution vests this power in one Supreme Court and such inferior courts as the Congress shall ordain and establish. The judges of these courts hold their offices during good behavior. Their powers extend to all cases in law and equity, arising under the constitution and laws of the United

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States, and to treaties made under their authority; to cases affecting embassadors, other public ministers and consuls; all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States are a party; to controversies between states, between a state and citizens of another state, between citizens of different states, between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a state or its citizens and foreign states citizens or subjects. Trials of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, must be by jury.

573. *Crimes, and rights of citizens.* Treason against the United States consists only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. Citizens of each state are entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens of the several states. A person charged with a crime, fleeing from justice and found in another state, must, on demand of the executive of the state from which he fled, be delivered up to be returned to that state, which has jurisdiction of the crime. Slaves escaping from their masters into another state are to be delivered up on demand of their masters.

Congress may admit new states into the Union; and the United States guaranty to every state in the Union, a republican form of government. The constitution and laws of the United States, made in pursuance of it, and all treaties made under the authority of the United States, are the supreme law of the land. Congress cannot make any law respecting the establishment of religion, or prohibit the free exercise of it; nor can they abridge the freedom of speech and of the press.

574. *Advantages and evils of Monarchy.* The advantages claimed for a government by a single person are secrecy and promptness in decision, and energy in action. A single man makes a law or decree without obstacles or delays, from opposing wills or

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opinions, and without liability to a disclosure of his designs. Hence in war monarchs have sometimes an advantage over republics; and in cases of extreme danger republics have sometimes created a dictator with unlimited powers for a time, to call into action the forces of the state. This was the fact in Rome, and during the war of the revolution Congress invested General Washington with absolute command. But the danger of monarchy, is, that the monarch will, as he always can, oppress his subjects with arbitrary and unreasonable taxes, or violations of their rights. It has been found that few monarchs have exercised a paternal care over their subjects—Most of them have been tyrants, or have wasted the revenue of their kingdoms in luxury and vice and war.

575. *Advantages and evils of Aristocracy.* When the nobles of a state, have the whole government in their hands, and have no dependence on the people for the possession of their power, they are often disposed, like monarchs, to oppress the people by taxes and unjust laws. In addition to this evil, their councils are often distracted with party spirit, by means of the jealousy, selfishness, and ambition of the different members of the government, by which such states are often kept in agitation, and the public interest is sacrificed. To counterbalance these evils, aristocracy may embody much wisdom; as nobles may have the advantage of a good education.

576. *Advantages and evils of a Republic.* The great benefit of a republican form of government, is, that the people, being the source of all authority, elect their own rulers, who, after a limited time, for which they are elected, return to the condition of private citizens. In this case the rulers and ruled have a common interest. If the representatives of the people enact unjust or oppressive laws, the people have a remedy, in the power of electing different men for representatives at a subsequent election,

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who may repeal such laws. The evils of this form of government are, that ambitious and unprincipled men, in their strife for office, may and often do deceive and mislead the people, or corrupt them by offers of money and offices. In this case the government often falls into the hands of wicked and profligate men.

577. *Success of the Constitution of the United States.* As soon as the constitution of the United States was ratified, and organized, the congress took effectual measures to give it due effect. They passed laws distributing the powers of the government into several departments. They established a department of state, to carry on a correspondence with foreign powers,—a department of the treasury, to manage all the concerns of the revenue,—a department of war, to superintend the affairs of the army,—and a department of the post-office, to conduct the concerns of the public mails. They afterwards established the department of the navy. At the head of each department was placed a head or chief officer. They also passed a law for collecting revenue by duties or imposts on foreign goods imported. They funded the debt of the United States, by appropriating money to pay the interest. They assumed a part of the debts of the states, contracted during the war of the revolution, and provided for the payment of the interest. They established courts for the decision of causes; one in each state called a *district court;* and a *supreme court*, with jurisdiction over the United States. These measures revived public credit, put in motion the enterprise and industry of our citizens, and gave these states rank and honor among the powers of the earth. From that time commenced the prosperity of the United States, which, with little interruption, has continued to this day.

578. *Origin of Civil Liberty.* Almost all the civil liberty now enjoyed in the world owes its origin to the principles of the christian religion. Men began

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to understand their natural rights, as soon as the reformation from popery began to dawn in the sixteenth century; and civil liberty has been gradually advancing and improving, as genuine christianity has prevailed. By the principles of the christian religion we are not to understand the decisions of ecclesiastical councils; for these are the opinions of mere men; nor are we to suppose that religion to be any particular church established by law, with numerous dignitaries, living in stately palaces, arrayed in gorgeous attire, and rioting in luxury and wealth, squeezed from the scanty earnings of the laboring poor; nor is it a religion which consists in a round of forms, and in pompous rites and ceremonies. No; the religion which has introduced civil liberty, is the religion of Christ and his apostles, which enjoins humility, piety and benevolence; which acknowledges in every person a brother, or a sister, and a citizen with equal rights. This is genuine christianity, and to this we owe our free constitutions of government.

579. *Character of the Puritans.* For the progress and enjoyment of civil and religious liberty, in modern times, the world is more indebted to the puritans in Great Britain and America, than to any other body of men, or to any other cause. They were not without their failings and errors. Emerging from the darkness of despotism, they did not at once see the full light of christian liberty; their notions of civil and religious rights were narrow and confined, and their principles and behavior were too rigid. These were the errors of the age. But they were pious and devout; they endeavored to model their conduct by the principles of the Bible and by the example of Christ and his apostles. They avoided all crimes, vices and corrupting amusements; they read the scriptures with care, observed the sabbath, and attended public and private worship. They rejected all ostentatious forms and rites; they were industrious in their callings and plain in their apparel. They

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rejected all distinctions among men, which are not warranted by the scriptures, or which are created by power or policy, to exalt one class of men over another, in rights or property.

580. *Institutions of the Puritans in America.* The puritans who planted the first colonies in New England, established institutions on republican principles. They admitted no superiority in ecclesiastical orders, but formed churches on the plan of the independence of each church. They distributed the land among all persons, in free hold, by which every man, lord of his own soil, enjoyed independence of opinion and of rights. They founded governments on the principle that the people are the sources of power; the representatives being elected annually, and of course responsible to their constituents. And especially they made early provision for schools for diffusing knowledge among all the members of their communities, that the people might learn their rights and their duties. Their liberal and wise institutions, which were then novelties in the world, have been the foundation of our republican governments.

581. *Effects of the principles and institutions of the Puritans.* The principles of the puritans fortified them to resist all invasions of their rights; and prepared them to vindicate their independence in the war of the revolution. That war ended in the establishment of the independence of the United States. The manifestoes or public addresses of the first American congress, and the act declaring independence, proclaimed to all the world the principles of free governments. These papers circulated extensively in foreign countries. The French officers who assisted in the defense of American rights became acquainted, in this country, with the principles of our statesmen, and the blessings of our free institutions; and this circumstance was the germ of a revolution in France. The constitution of the United States is made the model of the new governments in South

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America; and it is not without its influence in Greece and in Liberia in Africa. It is thus that the principles of free government, borrowed from the puritans, have been conveyed to foreign countries, and are gradually undermining arbitrary governments, with all their oppressive institutions, civil and ecclesiastical.

582. *General description of the United States.* The territory of the United States, guarantied to them by the treaty of peace in 1783, extended from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, and from Canada to Florida. Louisiana and Florida have since been added to it by purchase; the former extending its limits westward of the Mississippi, and the latter to the Gulf of Mexico. This territory extends from *forty five* degrees of north latitude to *twenty five* degrees: and from about *sixty five* degrees of west longitude from London, to *one hundred and twenty five* degrees, or the shore of the Pacific Ocean. It is estimated to contain *two thousand four hundred millions* of square miles. For the purpose of government, this territory, as far as it is sufficiently settled by white inhabitants, is divided into *states*, which are all united under one federal head; but that part which is unsettled or partially occupied by white inhabitants, is placed under officers, with particular powers.

583. *Climate of the United States.* With respect to climate, the Atlantic states may be divided into three regions. The first or northern region comprehends that part of the teritory, lying north of the beginning of the fortieth degree of north latitude, in which there is a predominance of cold and severe frost in winter. This region includes the states of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, and a part of New Jersey and Pennsylvania. The second or middle region comprehends the territory from the fortieth to the thirty seventh degree of latitude, in which the weather of winter is very variable, and subject to continual alternations of frost and rain. This region is

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cludes a part of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and the states of Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia. The third or southern region, from the thirty seventh to the thirty first degree of latitude, and including the Carolinas, Georgia and Florida has a predominance of mild weather in winter, though it is not exempt from occasional frosts.

584. *Temperature of the Several Regions.* The United States are subject to the extremes of heat and cold. The winters in the northern region usually commence in December and end in February. The earth is covered with snow, and the rivers with ice, from eight to twelve weeks. But in hard winters, the frost begins about the middle or latter part of November and ends in March. In mild winters, there is no severe frost of many days continuance, and little snow. In the middle region, the frost is less steady, though often severe. In ordinary winters, the rivers are occasionally obstructed with ice, but not for a great length of time, and snow is of short duration. In hard winters, the rivers in this region are covered with a bridge of ice, for six or eight weeks. In the southern region, the frost of an ordinary winter is very inconsiderable, and snow is scarcely seen. In hard winters frost and snow continue sometimes for several days and even weeks.

585. *Number of severe Winters.* Winters of the utmost severity seldom exceed four or five in a hundred years. Those which are less severe, but which may be called cold winters, are one third or at least a fourth of the whole number. Very mild winters, in which there is little frost and snow in the northern region are nearly as rare as very hard winters. These remarks are applicable to all parts of the territory of the United States, east of the mountains. On the west of the mountains, the weather is milder in the same latitudes, and storms of wind, rain and snow, less frequent, and violent.

586. *Temperature of the Summer Heat.* In all

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parts of the United States, the heat of summer is very great. In the southern region, the summer commences in April or May, and ends in October or November. In the middle and northern regions, the heat of summer begins in May or June, and ends in September, or in the northern part of the territory, in August. In the more northerly parts of the United States, frost is seen in almost every month of the year. In general, the winters in America, are as cold in the fortieth degree of latitude, as they are in Europe in the fiftieth.

587. *Spring and Autumn.* The spring of the year is marked with very variable weather, in every part of the United States. Warm days succeeded by cold nights, alternately thawing and freezing the surface of the earth; bleak westerly winds, followed by warm humid winds from the south, or damp chilly winds from the east, distinguish the months of March and April—and frequently the first weeks in May are distinguished by almost constant easterly rains. Autumn is a far more pleasant season. From the latter part of September to the middle of November, sometimes much later, the weather is temperate and dry, and to the blessings of abundant crops, is added a serene sky, which enables the farmer to collect and secure the fruits of the earth.

588. *Proportion of Dry Weather.* America is remarkable for a great proportion of dry weather. About two hundred and fifty days in the year, on an average, are nearly unclouded. The days which are mostly cloudy, do not exceed seventy or eighty; and those in which rain or snow falls the whole day, are scarcely half the number.

589. *Winds.* The winds most prevalent in the Atlantic States are from the westward—in winter they are north-westerly, and in summer south-westerly. These are dry winds, and especially the northwesterly winds, which are accompanied with a rapid evaporation, and consequently in summer are cool and re-

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freshing, and in winter, very cold. North winds are not very frequent but are always cool or cold. North-easterly and easterly winds are frequent in all seasons except the summer months, and are accompanied with a chilling dampness, which occasions the most disagreeable sensations. A south-east wind, at least in the northern and middle regions, seldom or never fails to produce rain, in twelve hours; and often blows a tempest, but is of short duration, seldom exceeding, twelve hours. Nor are the gales of wind from the south-east, on the American coast of great extent—they usually begin within a hundred miles of the coast, and seldom reach a hundred miles into the interior country—often not half the distance. A south wind is usually warm, and often attended with rain.

590. *Sea Breezes.* On all the coast of the United States, westward and southward of Cape Cod, a current of air from the ocean is cool and refreshing in summer. To the northward of that cape, the sea breezes are attended with a fog, or a cool damp vapor, which is chilling to the human body and very disagreeable. In spring, these breezes prevail on all the coast from Cape Cod to Newfoundland; and are often accompanied with thick fogs, occasioned probably by a condension of the warm vapors from the gulf stream. These fogs prevail till June or July, and are not more unpleasant to the feelings, than troublesome and dangerous to seamen. To the westward of Montauk Point, these fogs are far less common.

591. *Storms.* The most durable gales of wind are from the north-east. These, in spring and autumn, are usually accompanied with rain, and in winter with snow; but a long continued dry north-east wind sometimes occurs, especially in summer. This wind occurs but rarely in the summer months, in the northern and middle regions of the United States. It sweeps the Atlantic coast, but rarely penetrates beyond the mountains westward. It is observed, that a north-east storm begins at the south-west, and is

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felt in the southern parts of the United States, before it is in the northern.

592. *Summer Rains.* The rains of summer are of two kinds; durable rains from the east or south, or sudden and temporary showers. In some years the summer rains are mostly from the south or south east, attended with a humid state of atmosphere, extremely relaxing to the human body. Such rains are not usually accompanied with thunder. Sudden showers collect in the west, in hot weather, or after two or three days of extreme heat; and usually between noon and evening. A black cloud is speedily formed, and driven by violent wind from the north west or west, accompanied with livid flashes of lightning and tremendous thunder, with torrents of rain or hail. The duration of these showers is from half an hour to three hours. Sometimes these showers are attended with a hurricane of wind, called a tornado, driving forward with a whirling motion, twisting off the trunks of the firmest trees, and leveling bildings, fences and plants in promiscuous destruction.

593. *Effects of these showers.* The summer showers, collecting over the mountainous parts of the country and accompanied with a current of air from the cool regions of the atmosphere, not only refresh vegetation by a copious supply of water, but bring along a portion of pure and cool air, which is highly salubrious and invigorating to the human body, when almost exhausted with extreme heat: and for a day or two after the gust, the wind usually blows from the westward. At the same time the coolness of the air is increased and continued by the rapid evaporation which follows a shower; the heat of the earth combining with the water, being carried off in an invisible form.

594. *Weather westward of the Mountains.* That part of the United States which lies westward of the high lands, which divide the streams falling into the Atlantic, from those which fall into the lakes and

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the Mississippi, has a more temperate climate than the same latitudes on the Atlantic, and is less subject to violent storms. It is remarkable also that showers sometimes collect more suddenly over that part of the country—the rain does not begin gradually, but almost instantly pours down a torrent of water—and all at once it ceases, as in the twinkling of an eye. Snow falls frequently and without wind. Thunder also is less frequent in some parts of the interior country, than it is eastward of the mountains.

595. *Climate in regard to Health.* The northern Atlantic region of the United States, being mostly dry, hilly land is favored with a pure air and good water, and distinguished by the salubrity of its climate. In a very few places, low and marshy lands are found to produce autumnal diseases. The mountainous parts of the middle and southern regions, are, as in all parts of the globe, healthy. From the Hudson southward, the flat lands along the Atlantic and by the sides of rivers, are infested with autumnal fevers. In the northern region, one half of the children born live to be nineteen years old —one seventh live to the age of seventy, and one thirteenth to the age of eighty. The annual deaths amount to one in seventy, or seventy-five of all the inhabitants living.

596. *Diseases of the United States.* The ordinary diseases of the United States are the same as those which invade mankind in all similar climates. The usual epidemics are hooping cough, measels, influenza, scarlet fever, with some milder eruptive diseases. These diseases are periodical, though the periods are not exactly uniform. The autumnal diseases are chiefly dysentery and bilious fevers of all grades, from slight intermittents to the malignant fever, which is denominated pestilence. The dysentery appears, in scattered cases every year; but in some autumns becomes epidemic with great mortality. It however never invades large cities with such general mortality, as it does particular parts of the country. The

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malignant bilious fever occurs occasionally, but chiefly in large towns on the sea coast, or on rivers, or near lakes and stagnant water.

597. *Chronic Diseases.* In the northern region of the United States, and especially on the sea shore, the consumption is the most general and fatal chronic complaint; carrying off in some places, a fifth of the inhabitants. In the middle region it is prevalent, but in a less degree; and in the southern, is still less destructive. Rheumatic complaints, gout and hypochondriac affections are common. In the country west of the mountains, between the Ohio and the lakes, the goiter, or swelling upon the throat, is very prevalent, among the whites, but not among the natives.

QUESTIONS.

558. What are the different forms of government?

559. Which is the first constitution formed on the true principles of a republic?

560. How are the powers of government distributed in the constitutions of the States and United States?

561. How is the House of Representatives formed, in the constitution of the United States?

562. What are the qualifications of electors?

563. How is the representation apportioned among the States? How is the Senate of the United States composed?

564. What are the distinct powers of the two houses of Congress?

565. Which House must originate money bills and why?

566. How are bills for laws enacted?

567. What are the powers of Congress?

568. What limitations or restrictions are imposed on the powers of Congress?

569. In whom is the executive power vested? How are the President and Vice-President elected?

570. What are the qualifications for the presidency?

571. What are the powers and duties of the president?

572. What is the judicial power in government, and how is it vested by the constitution of the United States?

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573. What is treason by the Constitution? What provision is there for securing criminals fleeing from justice? How are new States admitted into the Union? What provision is there for toleration?

574. What are the advantages and what the evils of monarchy?

575. What are the advantages and evils of aristocracy?

576. What are the advantages and evils of republican government?

577. What were the first measures of Congress and what success has attended our government?

578. What has been the origin of civil liberty?

579. What was the character of the puritans, and what their influence in introducing republican forms of government?

580. What were the institutions of the puritans which were the foundations of our republican government?

581. What have been the effects of the New England institutions, and what extensive effects may yet be expected from them?

582. What is the extent of the territory of the United States? How many square miles is it estimated to contain?

583. What are the climates of the United States?

584. What is the temperature of the several regions or sections of the United States?

585. What proportion of winters are severe?

586. What is the temperature of summer?

587. What is the weather in spring and autumn?

588. What is the proportion of dry weather?

589. What are the prevailing winds in the United States?

590. What are the sea breezes?

591. What are the usual winds in storms?

592. What are the prevailing rains?

593. What is the effect of summer showers?

594. What is the weather west of the mountains?

595. What is the climate in regard to health?

596, 597. What are the most usual diseases of the United States?

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SECTION XVI.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.

598. *Native Trees of the United States.* In the variety, size and beauty of its forest trees, no country can exceed the United States. The kinds of trees found in every part of our country are, oak, pine, maple, beech, ash, spruce, fir, hemlock, hickory, elm, chesnut, willow, poplar, cedar, locusts, sassafras, laurel, birch, cherry, bass-wood, butternut, hornbeam, bay, button-wood, elder, dog-wood. Of several of these kinds there are many varieties.

599. *Trees peculiar to Particular regions.* The black-walnut is indigenous, in the country southward of the Hudson, and not eastward; but when transplanted, it grows well in New-England. The persimmon, chincopin, catalpa, papaw, plane-tree, magnolia, aloe cypress, paccan, pimento, and some others, are found solely or chiefly in the middle, southern and western regions of the United States. The live oak, the best timber for ships, is a native of the southern regions, chiefly of the islands on the coast of South Carolina and Georgia, and of the Mississippi territory and in Florida.

600. *Shrubs and wild Fruit Trees.* The crab-apple is found in all parts of the United States, and in the southern and middle regions, cider is made of its fruit. Most parts of this country abound with wild cherries, currants, grapes, strawberries, huckleberries, blackberries, dewberries, raspberries, barberries, mulberries, bayberries, juniper berries, filberts, hazlenuts, bilberries, plums, gooseberries, sumac, honeysuckle, myrtle, cranberries. The latter furnishes our tables with one of the richest sauces.

601. *Foreign Trees and Fruits Cultivated in America.* Most of the fruit trees cultivated on the eastern continent, thrive well in the United States. Among these are apples, peaches, pears, quinces, cherries, plums, apricots, nectarines, gooseberries, raspberries,

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melons, oranges, lemons, figs, pomegranates, olives, and almonds. Apples thrive best in the middle and northern regions—peaches and melons, in the southern. The peach is found in a good degree of perfection as far north as Boston, but farther northward, degenerates, and is cultivated with difficulty. Oranges, lemons, pomegranates, almonds, figs, and olives, grow as far north as Virginia, but are subject to be killed by the frosts of winter—In South Carolina and Georgia, they are cultivated with success.

602. *Garden Vegetables.* Every species of vegetable, cultivated for the use of the table in the old world, thrives well in America. Of these we have peas, beans, cabbages, cauliflowers, spinage, celery, lettuce, asparagus, turneps, onions, beets, radishes, carrots, parsneps, cucumbers, and a variety of other kinds, used in cookery and for medicinal purposes. The sugar cane has been introduced into Louisiana and Georgia, and is cultivated with success, affording sugar of the best quality.

603. *Plants Indigenous in America.* Maiz, potatoes, tobacco, pumpkins, squashes, hops and ginseng, are native productions of America. Of these the three first are of the most use. Maiz, commonly called Indian corn, is one of the most extensively useful grains known in the world; as it thrives through a range of nearly one hundred degrees of latitude, or fifty degrees on each side of the equator, and is one of the most nourishing articles of food for man and beast. In the southern parts of the United States this plant grows to the hight of twelve or fourteen feet, the ear springs from the twelfth or thirteenth joint, far above the reach of a man standing on the ground—In the middle parts of the United States, the species cultivated grow to the hight of eight or ten feet, and the ears spring from the fifth, sixth, or seventh joint—In the more northern parts and in Canada, a species of four or five feet growth, with ears shooting from the second and third joints, is the only one which the

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shortness of the summer heat, will permit to come to maturity. What an admirable proof is this of the wisdom and goodness of the Creator, thus to fit the several species of this all-important grain, to the several climates of the globe!

604. *Potatoe.* The discovery of America added this invaluable root to the esculent vegetables of the eastern continent. It was found and carried to Europe by some of the adventurers under sir Walter Ralegh. The ease with which it is cultivated, the great quantity of food which it furnishes from a small portion of land, the little injury that its cultivation does to the soil, and its nourishing qualities, which render it a substitute for bread, and the ease and little expense of dressing it for the table, render it one of the most useful plants, especially to the poor; and its cultivation has, in no small degree, diminished the chances of famine which was formerly so frequent in Europe.

605. *Tobacco.* When tobacco was first introduced into England, king James issued a proclamation against the use of so offensive a plant. But the prejudices against it gradually subsided, and it now forms a considerable article of consumption in all parts of the world. It thrives well in all parts of the United States.—In the northern region, it is cultivated chiefly for domestic use, but in the middle states, chiefly in Maryland and Virginia, it constitntes an important article of export.

606 *Kinds of Grain, not Indigenous.* Wheat, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, millet and rice, have been introduced into the United States. Of these wheat is the most generally cultivated, and is esteemed the finest grain. On suitable soils, which are the dry and gravely or the rich mold of new lands, it thrives in every part of the United States, except on the Atlantic shore of the eastern states. Even in that part of the country, it was cultivated with success for thirty or forty years after our ancestors settled in America, but it now fails. Rice is cultivated only in the Caro-

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linas and Georgia, where it is raised in great quantities for exportation. The other species of grain grow well in any part of the United States, and since the failure of wheat in the eastern states, rye is much used for bread, either alone, or mixed with maiz, or, in some parts, where wheat will grow, with a small portion of wheat, which mixture is called meslin.

607. *Plants cultivated for Clothing.* Hemp and flax grow well in all parts of the United States, where the soil is sufficiently rich and suitable. Flax is raised for clothing, in greater or less quantities, and manufactured into coarse cloth. The seed is exported to Ireland, or furnishes oil for paints. Hemp for cordage may be cultivated generally, but its culture is confined to a few places. Cotton grows well in the southern and western parts of the United States and is cultivated in great quantities, as well for domestic manufacture, as for exportation. Indigo thrives well in the Carolinas and Georgia, as well as in Louisiana and Florida and was formerly a considerable article of export; but the high price of cotton has lately occasioned the culture of indigo to be neglected.

608. *Silk and Vines.* Silk may be cultivated in all parts of the United States. The attempts made in New-England to introduce the culture demonstrate that the climate and soil are favorable, and that nothing but the high price of labor prevents an attention to this object. Vines are the spontaneous production of all parts of this country, and some species of native grapes are of an excellent quality. The species of foreign grapes, which yield some of the best wines in Europe, are introduced and thrive well, in the middle and even in some part of the northern region of the United States; but the making of wine is yet confined to a few places.

QUESTIONS.

598. What are the native trees of the United States
599. What trees are peculiar to particular regions
600. What are the shrubs and fruit trees?

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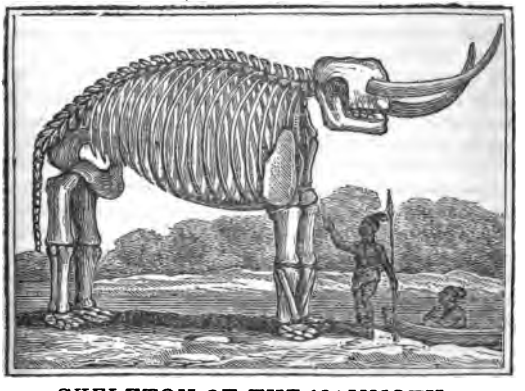
601. What foreign trees and fruits are cultivated?
602. What are the garden vegetables?
603. What plants are indigenous or native?
604. Who carried the potatoe to Europe? What are its peculiar advantages?
605. How was tobacco treated at first?
606. What sorts of grain were introduced from Europe?
607. What plants are cultivated for clothing?
608. Can silk and vines be cultivated, and where?

SECTION XVII.

ANIMALS OF THE UNITED STATES.

609. *Native Animals.* The following quadrupeds are natives of the United States, the buffalo, moose, elk, bear, deer, wolf, wild cat or lynx, panther, catamount, wolverin, fox, beaver, otter, martin, raccoon, hare, rabbit, muskrat or musquash, weasel, squirrel of several kinds, one kind of rat, opossum, skunk, mink, woodchuk, ermine, seal, mole, field mouse, porcupine. Many of these animals, fitted to live only in the forest, retire westward as cultivation proceeds in that direction, and are no longer seen near the Atlantic. On the Wallkill in the state of New York; near the salt-licks in Kentucky; and in other parts of America have been found the bones of some huge animal now extinct. It is supposed by some to have been of the elephant species, and has obtained the appellation of *Mammoth or Mastodon.* A skeleton of this animal, nearly complete may be seen in the Museum at Philadelphia. Its size is that of the largest species of elephant, and a tall man may walk upright under its belly. This beast must have fed by means of a proboscis, as the neck is not long enough to reach the earth, when standing; but the form of the teeth, and jaws, and especially the spiral form and position of its tusks, make it certain that the animal was different from any which is now known to exist.

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SKELETON OF THE MAMMOTH.

610. *Domestic Animals.* The animals kept by man for use, are derived from such as were imported: such as horses, cattle of all kinds, sheep, asses, goats, dogs, cats, swine. All these thrive well in the United States. The mountainous districts of the southern states, and all parts of the northern furnish oxen and cows of the largest and best kind. Elegant horses of English breed are raised chiefly in the middle and southern states, and a race of dutch horses, very large and excellent for draft in Pennsylvania. In New-England and Canada, the horses are smaller but very hardy and serviceable.

611. *Wild Fowls.* The wild fowls of the United States are too numerous to be specified. Some of the most remarkable are, the eagle, falcon, hawks of various sorts, herons, owls, swans, crows, turkies, geese, ducks of many kinds, pelicans, brants, pigeons, partridges, quails, woodcocks, woodpeckers of various sorts, swallows, martins, buzzards, blackbirds, robins, larks, blue birds, rens, sparrows, gulls, plov-

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ers, snipes, cranes and storks. *Domestic Fowls.* The domestic fowls are of foreign origin, as the goose, duck, pigeons, and dunghill fowls. They thrive in all parts of this country. The wild goose and turky may be tamed, but the turky, which grows to the weight of thirty pounds or more when wild, degenerates by domestication.

612. *Birds of passage.* Some species of birds leave the cold regions in autumn, and visit the more southern climes. Wild geese and pigeons, and some kinds of ducks, are of this sort. Many kinds of fowls are so hardy as to remain, and fly about in the severity of ordinary winters, without danger, as the crow, the partridge, quail and snowbird. But in very hard winters, these birds are known to perish in great numbers. The swallow, about the last week in August is said to seek shelter in ponds, rivers and marshes, and remain torpid till spring. But most kinds of birds retreat to the cavities of hollow trees and like places.

613. *Fishes.* The sea and rivers in the United States, abound with an immense variety of fish, many of them of the most useful kind. Whales are often caught near the coast. Codfish are taken on the shores of the northern region, and on the banks of Newfoundland, in such abundance, as to form a large article of our exports. Halibut, haddock, mullet, whiting, plaice, mackarel, bass, tetaug or blackfish, sheepshead, and a great variety of small fish, fill our markets at most seasons of the year. Alewives are caught in vast numbers for foreign markets, and menhaden or white fish, for manuring land; and our rivers abound with sturgeon.

614. *Shad and Salmon.* In April and May, the rivers are stocked with shad in immense numbers, and furnish the inhabitants with no small part of their food. The salmon, in the same months, frequent the rivers in Maine. But that fish is not found in rivers which discharge into the Atlantic westward of the

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Connecticut, and since the erection of dams for canals they have deserted the Connecticut. The small streams abound with trout, roach, perch and eels, and the lakes, with their tributary streams, are well supplied with excellent fish, especially with the pike and salmon trout of a large size.

615. *Shell Fish.* Oysters of the best kinds cover the shores of the United States. Lobsters of the largest kind abound in many places. Crabs, shrimps, muscles, and clams of various species are found in our harbors and creeks; and we are occasionally favored with turtle from the more southern climes. No country can boast of a richer profusion of food, constantly furnished from the hills, the forest, and the bosom of the deep! *Amphibious animals.* Our swamps and ponds abound with frogs, one species of which called a bullfrog, is very large. The tortois or turtle is common to all parts of America. Animals of the lizard kind are numerous; and the alligator or crocodile, the largest of that species, is found in the rivers of the southern states.

616. *Serpents.* The principal species of these animals are the rattle snake, the black snake of several kinds, the viper, the adder of several sorts, one of which is amphibious, and another frequents houses, the green and striped snakes. The rattle snake has a fatal poison in a bag, at the root of his large teeth, which when he bites is conveyed by a small opening through the teeth, to the object bitten. But this snake is slow in his movement, and usually gives notice of his presence by a buzzing noise made with the rattles at the end of his tail. He lives among the rocks, and in summer descends into the meadows. It is remarkable that the lands which are covered with beach and maple trees, and contain no rocky precipices, are free from all large venomous serpents.

617. *Small reptiles and insects.* The United States, in common with all warm and temperate climates, abound with small animals of the reptile and insect

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kinds. Few of them however are venomous; the honey bee is very useful, and in the mountains and hilly parts of the country, none of them are vexatious. Near swamps and marshes, the musketoes, and in some places, gnats, are extremely troublesome. In the flat lands in the Carolinas and Georgia, it is necessary for people to defend themselves at night against the musketoes, by surrounding their beds with gauze curtains or pavilions.

618. *Locust and the grasshopper.* Locusts appear in vast numbers, at particular times, and are supposed to be periodical; but in the United States they do little injury. Grasshoppers are seen every summer; but are harmless, except in very dry seasons, when they multiply to an astonishing degree, and devour the grass, corn and other useful vegetables.

619. *Canker worm.* In the northern and middle states, canker worms appear at certain times, in such numbers as to injure the apple tree. Their appearance seems to be periodical. They are most destructive to trees on light, dry land; and seldom invade trees which stand on a stiff clay, or moist land. They are produced from an egg deposited on the trees by a female, which comes from the earth and ascends the trees in spring as soon as the frost is dissolved. To prevent their ascent, it is usual to encircle the trees with tar, and this, if applied to a wisp or band of tow, around the trees, will not injure them. These worms feed till June, stripping the trees of their foliage; then suddenly disappear. They generally appear, for two, three or four years in succession.

620. *Other noxious insects.* Caterpillars, of various species, appear, at times, in such numbers, as to be very destructive to fruit trees, and some forest trees. The rose bug and the slug also, in particular seasons, do great injury. A white worm or grub, in some parts of the country devours the roots of the grass, and gives to the rich meadow and pasture the appearance of a barren heath. A black worm occa-

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sionally invades the grass and corn in May and June, and in such myriads as to lay waste the fields; and an insect has lately attacked the wheat. But although these and many other insects ravage at times particular places, or particular sorts of vegetation, yet our crops are usually rich and abundant.

621. *Minerals.* Gold is found in abundance in North Carolina, and in the Cherokee country. Iron is found in places too numerous to be here particularized. Some parts of Missouri, and of Indiana abound with inexhaustible treasures of lead. Lime stone is abundant in various places, as are sand stone and granite of a beautiful texture. Slate for bildings is furnished from a quarry on the bank of the Hudson above Fishkill, and from another in Guilford in Vermont, is furnished in abundance. Bitumenous coal is found in Virginia, Ohio, and Kentucky, in great quantities; and the vast beds of anthracite on the Susquehannah, in Pennsylvania, furnish inexhaustible supplies of fuel. Mineral springs are numerous, in various places. Those which are most frequented are at Saratoga and Ballstown, in the state of New York. Salt springs are found in many places; and those in the county of Onondago in the state of New York supply an abundance of salt for the western counties and for Ohio.

622. *Population.* The original settlers of Virginia and New England, were almost all natives of England; those of New York were natives of Holland and other parts of the Netherlands; a body of Swedes planted the first colony on the Delaware, where their descendants are still found, though few of them unmixed with the progeny of other settlers. Maryland was originally peopled by emigrants from Ireland; the Carolinas and Georgia, by emigrants from England, Scotland and Germany, and Pennsylvania from England, Ireland and Germany. To these original settlers are to be added the Africans, who were imported for the purpose of cultivating the plantations of the southern settlers and for domestic ser-

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vants. The population of the northern states, doubles in less than twenty-five years, by natural means. But this increase is considerably accelerated by migrations from Europe.

623. *Persons and character of the inhabitants of the Northern States.* The inhabitants of the northern states are generally tall, bony and muscular; and less corpulent than their English ancestors. They are remarkable for their industry, invention and perseverance. They make the most diligent farmers and mechanics; and the most active, bold and hardy seamen on earth. They are distinguished for their habits of subordination to parental and civil authority, which render them peaceable, obliging and hospitable; but educated in perfect freedom, and with a strong sense of personal independence, they spurn at every assumption of superiority, and treat with contempt and detestation, any man who is overbearing in his manners. The vices of drunkenness, tippling, gambling, trickishness in mutual dealings, profanity and the like, are found among the more corrupt members of the community. But the great body of the people, who are freeholders, with estates in fee which furnish them with means of subsistence, maintain the character of good sense, discernment and pure morals; living in the constant attendance upon religious worship, and adorning their profession as christians, by a correspondent practice.

QUESTIONS.

609. What are the native animals of America? What bones of extinct animals have been found?

610. What are the domestic animals?

611. What are the wild fowls?

612. What birds of passage are there?

613. What are the fishes on our coast?

614. When do shad and salmon enter the river? When did the salmon desert the Connecticut?

615. What shell fish have we?

616. What are the serpents in the United States?

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617. What are the small reptiles and insects?
618. What injury is done by the locust and grass hopper?
619. What injury is done by the canker worms?
620. What other noxious insects sometimes appear?
621. What minerals are found in the United States?
622. From what nations are the people of the United States descended?
623. What is the general character of the inhabitants of the northern States?

ADVICE TO THE YOUNG.

1. My young friends, the first years of your life are to be employed in learning those things which are to make you good citizens, useful members of society, and candidates for a happy state in another world. Among the first things you are to learn are your duties to your parents. These duties are commanded by God, and are necessary to your happiness in this life. The commands of God are, "Honor thy father and thy mother."—"Children, obey your parents in all things." These commands are binding on all children; they cannot be neglected without sin. Whatever God has commanded us to do, we must perform, without calling in question the propriety of the command.

2. But the reasonableness of this command to obey parents is clear and easily understood by children, even when quite young. Parents are the natural guardians of their children. It is their duty to feed, clothe, protect and educate them; and for these purposes it is proper and necessary that parents should have authority to direct their actions. Parents therefore are bound by duty and by right to govern their children; but the exercise of this right is to be regulated by affection. Parents have implanted in them a tender love for their offspring,

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which induces them to exercise authority over them with kindness.

3. It is proper that parents should be intrusted with the instruction of children, because children have every thing to learn, and parents are older and have gained a knowledge of what their children want to know. Parents have learned what is right, and what is wrong; what is duty, and what is sin; what is useful and what is hurtful to children and to men. And as children pass the first years of their life with their parents, they may be continually learning from their parents what is necessary or useful in the concerns of life.

4. It is not only proper that children should obey their parents, but their obedience should be prompt and cheerful. A slow, reluctant obedience, and that which is accompanied with murmurings, is not acceptable to parents nor to God. A sense of duty should make a child free and ready to comply with a parent's command; and this will always be the case where the child entertains a due respect for his parents. Love and respect render obedience easy and cheerful, and a willing obedience increases the confidence of parents in their children, and strengthens their attachment to them. But a cold and unwilling obedience, with a murmuring disposition, alienates affection, and inclines the parent to rigor and severity in the exercise of his authority.

5. Hence it is a primary duty of children, and as much their interest as it is their duty to "Honor their father and their mother." This honor not only forbids the child to disobey his parents but it forbids all rudeness and ill manners towards them. Children should manifest their respect for their parents in all their actions. They should be modest and respectful in their company, never interrupting them in conversation, nor boldly contradicting them: they should address them as superiors, and yield to their opinions and admonitions. This subordination of chil-

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dren to their parents is the foundation of peace in families; contributes to foster those kindly dispositions, both in parents and children, which are the sources of domestic happiness, and which extend their influence to all social relations in subsequent periods of life.

6. Among the first and most important truths which you are to learn, are those which relate to God and religion. As soon as your minds become capable of reasoning, or excited by curiosity to know the causes of things, you will naturally inquire who made the world, who made you, and why were you made? You will understand, by a moment's thought, that the things around you cannot have made themselves. You will be convinced that a stone or a mass of earth cannot have made itself, as it has no power in itself to act or move; it must then have had a creator, some being that had power to act or move, and to bring the stone into existence.

7. You observe that plants and trees grow, but they do not grow in winter, when it is cold; some degree of heat is necessary to their growth. You conclude then that wood and vegetable matter in itself has not the power of growth or increase. You see various animals, as dogs, and horses, but you know that they cannot create themselves; the first animal of every kind must then have had a creator, distinct from the animal himself. You see houses, and barns and ships, but you know that they did not make themselves; you know they are made by men. You know also that you did not create yourselves; you began to exist at a time which you cannot remember, and in a manner of which you have no knowledge.

8. From such familiar observations and reflections, children may be convinced, with absolute certainty, that there must be a being who has been the creator of all the things which they see. Now when you think that of all the substances about you, not one

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can have been its own creator, and when you see the vast multitude of things, their variety, their size, their curious forms and structures, you will at once conclude that the Being who could make such things must possess immense power, altogether superior to the power of any being that you see on the earth. You will then be led to inquire who is this Being, and where is he.

9. Here not only children, but the wisest philosophers are brought to a stand. We are compelled to believe that there is a Being of vast and unlimited power, who has created whatever we see; but who he is or where he is, we cannot know by our own observation or reason. As we cannot see this Being, we cannot, by the help of reason, know anything of his manner of existence, or of his power, except what we learn from his works, or from revelation. If we had been left to gather all our knowledge of the creator from his works, our knowledge of him must have been very imperfect. But the creator has not left mankind in ignorance on this subject. He has graciously revealed his character to man; and his revelations are recorded in a book, which by way of eminence, is called the *Bible*.

10. From the Bible we learn that God is a *Spirit*; hence we cannot see him. Spirit is not visible to human eyes. Yet we need not wonder that a substance which is invisible should possess amazing power. We cannot see the air or wind; yet we know by observation, that this fine, subtil fluid is a substance that supports our life, and when in rapid motion, it has immense force. We conclude then that a Being, consisting of pure spirit, may possess all the power necessary to the formation of the sun, moon and stars, and every thing that we can see or feel. This great Being, in our language, is called *God*. He is a spirit that extends through the universe.

11. The scriptures inform us that God is not only all-powerful, but all-wise: and his wisdom is dis-

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played in the admirable structure of whatever he has made; in the adaptation of every thing to its proper uses; in the exact order and beautiful arrangement and harmony of all parts of creation.

The scriptures inform us also that God is a benevolent Being. "God is love," and we have abundant evidence of this truth in the works of creation. God has not only made men and animals to inhabit the earth, but he has furnished the earth with every thing that is necessary for their support and welfare. The earth is stocked with plants, which are food for animals, of various kinds, as well as for man; and plants and animals furnish man with food and clothing and shelter from the inclemency of the weather. The sea and rivers and lakes are also stocked with animals that supply food and other conveniences for man. The earth contains inexhaustible stores for supplying the wants and desires of living creatures.

12. We learn also from the Bible that God is a holy Being; that is, he is perfectly free from any sinful attributes or dispositions. If God was a wicked or malevolent Being, he would have contrived and formed every thing on earth to make his creatures miserable. Instead of this, we know from observation as well as experience, he has made every thing for their comfort and happiness. Having learned from the scriptures and from the works of creation, the character of God, and that he is your creator; the next inquiry is, in what relation do you stand to your maker, and what is his will respecting your conduct.

13. The first and most important point to be decided in your minds is that God is your *Supreme or Sovereign Ruler*. On this point, there can be no room for doubt; for nothing can be more evident than that the Being who creates another, has a perfect, indisputable right to govern him. God has then a complete right to direct all the actions of the beings he has made. To the lower animals God has given

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certain propensities, called instincts, which lead them to the means of their own subsistence and safety.

14. Man is a being of a higher order; he is furnished with understanding or intellect, and with powers of reason, by which he is able to understand what God requires of him, and to judge of what is right and wrong. These faculties are the attributes of the *soul*, or spiritual part of man, which constitutes him a *moral* being, and exalts him to a rank in creation much superior to that of any other creature on earth.

15. Being satisfied that God is your creator and rightful governor, the next inquiry is, what is his will concerning you; for what purpose did he make you and endow you with reason? A wise being would not have made you without a wise purpose. It is very certain then that God requires you to perform some duties, and fill some useful station among other beings.

16. The next inquiry then is, what you are to do and what you are to forbear, in order to act the part which your maker has assigned to you in the world. This you cannot know with certainty without the help of revelation. But here you are not left without the means of knowledge; for God has revealed his will, and has given commands for the regulation of your conduct.

17. The Bible contains the commands of God; that book is full of rules to direct your conduct on earth; and from that book you may obtain all you want to know, respecting your relation to God, and to your fellow men, and respecting the duties which these relations require you to perform. Your duties are comprised in two classes; one including such as are to be performed directly to God himself; the other, those which are to be performed directly to your fellow men.

18. The first and great command is, to love the Lord your God with all the heart and soul and mind

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and strength. This supreme love to God is the first, the great, the indispensable duty of every rational being. Without this no person can yield acceptable obedience to his maker. The reasonableness of this command is obvious. God is a Being of perfect excellence, and the only being of which we have any knowledge, who possesses this character. Goodness or holiness is the only source of real happiness; it is therefore necessary to be holy in order to be happy. As the character of God is the only perfect model of holiness, it follows that all God's creatures who are intended to be happy, must have the like character. But men will not aim to possess the character of holiness, unless they love it as the chief good. Hence the necessity of loving God with supreme affection.

19. Sin is the source of all evil. If sin was admitted into heaven, it would disturb the happiness of the celestial abode. Hence God has determined that no sinner shall be admitted into heaven. Before men can be received there, they must be purified from sin and sinful propensities. As this world is a state in which men are prepared for heaven, if prepared at all, it is indispensable that while they are in this world, they must be purified in heart, their evil affections must be subdued, and their prevailing dispositions must be holy. Thus when they are sanctified, and supreme love to God rules in their heart, they become qualified for the enjoyment of bliss with God and other holy beings.

20. It is true that, in this world, men do not become perfectly holy; but God has provided a Redeemer whose example on earth was a perfect model of holy obedience to God's law, which example men are to imitate as far as they are able; and God accepts the penitent sinner's cordial faith in Christ, accompanied with sincere repentance, and humble submission and obedience to his commands, in the place of perfect holiness of character.

21. The duties which you owe directly to God are

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entire, unwavering faith in his promises, reverence of his character, and frequent prayer and worship. Unbelief is a great sin, and so is profaneness, irreverence, contempt of his character and laws, neglect of prayer and of worship, public and private. All worship of images, and saints is an abomination to God; it is idolatry which is strictly forbidden in the Bible; and all undue attachment to the pleasures, the amusements, and honors of the world, is a species of idolatry.

22. The second class of duties comprehends all such as you are bound to perform to your fellow men. These duties are very numerous, and require to be studied with care. The general law on this subject, is prescribed by Christ in these words, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." You are bound to do that to others which you desire them to do to you. This law includes all the duties of respect to superiors, and of justice and kindness to all men.

23. It has already been stated to you, that you are to obey your parents; and although obedience to other superiors may not always be required of you, yet you are bound to yield them due honor and respect in all the concerns of life. Nothing can be more improper than a neglect or violation of this respect. It is a beautiful anecdote, recorded of the Spartan youth, that in a public meeting, young persons rose from their seats, when a venerable old man entered the assembly. It makes no difference whether the aged man is an acquaintance or a stranger; whoever he may be, always give him the precedence. In public places, and at public tables, it is extreme rudeness and ill manners, for the young to thrust themselves into the highest and best seats.

24. The law of kindness extends also to the treatment of equals. Civility requires that to them all persons should give a preference; and if they do not accept it, the offer always manifests good breeding, and wins affection. Never claim too much; modesty

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will usually gain more than is demanded; but arrogance will gain less. Modest, unassuming manners conciliate esteem; bold, obtrusive manners excite resentment or disgust.

25. As mankind are all one family, the rule of loving our neighbor as ourselves, extends to the performance of all duties of kindness to persons of all nations and all conditions of men. Persons of all nations, of all ranks, and conditions, high and low, rich and poor, and of all sects or denominations, are our brethren, and our *neighbors* in the sense which Christ intended to use the word in his precept. This comprehensive rule of duty cannot be limited by any acts of our own. Any private association of men for the purpose of contracting the rule, and confining our benevolence to such associations, is a violation of the divine commands. Christ healed the sick, and the lame, without any regard to the nation or sect to which they belonged.

26. One of the most important rules of social conduct is *justice*. This consists positively in rendering to every person what is due to him and negatively, in avoiding every thing that may impair his rights. Justice embraces the rights of property, the rights of personal liberty and safety, and the rights of character.

27. In regard to property, you are to pay punctually all your just debts. When a debt becomes payable to another, you cannot withhold or delay payment without a violation of his right. By failure or delay of payment, you keep that which belongs to another. But the rule of justice extends to every act which can affect the property of another. If you borrow any article of your neighbor, you are to use it with care and not injure the value of it. If you borrow a book or any utensil, and injure it, you take a portion of your neighbor's property. Yet heedless people who would not steal twenty five cents from another, often think nothing of injuring a borrowed utensil, to twice or five times that amount.

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28. In like manner, one who takes a lease of a house or land, is bound to use it in such a manner as to injure it as little as possible. Yet how often do the lessees of real estate, strive to gain as much as possible from the use of it, while they suffer the buildings and fences to go to ruin, to the great injury of the owner! This is one of the most common species of immorality. But all needless waste and all diminution of the value of property in the hands of a lessee, proceeding from negligence, amounts to the same thing as the taking of so much of the owner's property without right. It is not considered as stealing, but it is a species of fraud that is as really immoral as stealing.

29. The command of God," Thou shalt not steal," is very comprehensive, extending to the prohibition of every species of fraud. Stealing is the taking of something from the possession of another clandestinely for one's own use. This may be done by entering the house of another at night, and taking his property; or by taking goods from a shop secretly or by entering upon another's land and taking his horse or his sheep. These customary modes of stealing are punishable by law.

30. But, there are many other ways of taking other men's property secretly, which are not so liable to be detected. If a stone is put into a bag of cotton intended for a distant market, it increases the weight, and the purchaser of that bag who pays for it at its weight, buys a stone in stead of its weight in cottor. In this case, the man who first sells the bag knowing it to contain a stone, takes from the purchaser by fraud as much money as the weight of the stone produces, that is, as much as the same weight of cotton is worth. This is as criminal as it would be to enter his house and steal so much money.

31. If butter or lard is put up for a foreign or distant market, it should be put up in a good state, and the real quality should be such as it *appears* to be.

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If any deception is practiced, by covering that which is bad by that which is good or by other means, all the price of the article which it brings beyond the real worth, is so much money taken from the purchaser by fraud, which falls within the criminality of stealing. If a buyer of the article in Europe or the West Indies is thus defrauded, *he* may never be able to know who has done the wrong; but God knows and will punish the wrong doer. It is as immoral to cheat a foreigner as to cheat a neighbor.

32. Not only property in money and goods is to be respected; but the property in fruit growing in orchards and gardens. A man's apples, pears, peaches, and melons are as entirely his own, as his goods or his coin. Every person who climbs over a fence or enters by a gate into another's inclosure without permission is a trespasser; and if he takes fruit secretly, he is a thief. It makes no difference that a pear or an apple or a melon is of small value; a man has as exclusive a right to a *cent* or a *melon* as he has to a *dollar*, a *dime* or an *eagle*.

33. If in a country where apples are abundant, men do not notice the taking of a few apples to eat, yet this indulgence is not to be considered as giving a right to take them. Where the injury is trifling, men in neighborhoods may do such things by consent. But there are many species of fruit so rare as to be cultivated with much labor and protected with care. Such fruit is often valued even more than money. The stealing of such fruit is one of the most common crimes, and as disgraceful to a civilized and christian people as it is common. Let every man or boy who enters another's inclosure and steals fruit be assured he is as guilty as one who enters another's house and takes the same value in money.

34. If in making payment or counting money, a mistake occurs by which a sum falls into your hands, which belongs to another person, you are as much bound by moral duty to correct the mistake and re-

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store the money to the rightful owner, as you would be *not* to take it by theft. If persons suppose that because this money falls into their hands by mistake, and the mistake may never be known to the person who has a right to the money; this makes no difference in the point of morality; the concealment of the mistake and the keeping of the money are dishonest, and fall within the command "Thou shalt not steal."

35. When a man is hired to work for another by the day, the week or the month, he is bound to perform what he undertakes; and if no particular amount of labor is promised, he is bound to do the work which is ordinarily done in such cases. If a man hired to do a day's work spends half the day in idleness, he defrauds his employer of a part of his due; that is of one half the value of a day's labor. If the price of labor is one dollar for the day, then to waste half the day in idleness is to defraud the employer of half a dollar; this is as dishonest as to take half a dollar from his chest.

36. When a mechanic contracts to build a house or a ship, he is bound to perform the work in the manner which is promised. If he performs the work slightly, and with workmanship inferior to that which is promised and understood at the time of contracting, he defrauds his employer. Neglect of duty, in such a case, is as essentially immoral as the positive act of taking property from another without his consent.

37. The adulteration of liquors and drugs is extremely criminal. By adulteration, the value of a thing is diminished; and if an adulterated liquor or drug is sold for that which is genuine, a fraud is committed on the purchaser. The adulteration of wines is one of the most common and flagrant immoralities in commercial countries. The adulteration of drugs may be even more iniquitous, for then the physician cannot rely on their effects in healing the sick. All

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classes of people, but especially the common people, are continually subjected to frauds by such adulterations. A glass of genuine unadulterated wine is scarcely to be found, and foul mixtures are often used as medicines, for no pure wine is to be had in the neighborhood.

38. The modes used to defraud men in the kind or in the quantity or quality of commodities offered for sale, are almost innumerable. They extend to almost every thing in which fraud is not easily detected. This is a melancholy picture of the state of society; exhibiting unequivocal evidence of the depravity of men. It shows that the love of money is the root of all evil—a principle so powerful in the human heart as to overcome all regard to truth, morality and reputation.

39. In all your dealings with men, let a strict regard to veracity and justice govern all your actions. Uprightness in dealings secures confidence and the confidence of our fellow men is the basis of reputation, and often a source of prosperity. Men are always ready to assist those whom they can trust; and a good character in men of business often raises them to wealth and distinction. On the other hand hypocrisy, trickishness, and want of punctuality and of fairness in trade often sink men into meanness and poverty. Hence we see that the divine commands, which require men to be just, are adapted to advance their temporal as well as their spiritual interest.

40. Not only are theft and fraud of all kinds forbidden by the laws of God and man, but all kinds of injury or annoyance of the peace, security, rights and prosperity of men. The practice of boys and of men, who do mischief for sport, is as wrong in morality as it is degrading to the character. To pull down or deface a sign-board; to break or deface a mile-stone; to cut and disfigure benches or tables, in a school house, court house or church; to place obstacles in the highway; to pull down or injure fences; to tar-

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nish the walls of houses or the boards of a fence, and similar tricks that injure property or disturb the peace of society, are not only mean but immoral. Why will rational beings indulge in such feats of mischief and folly? Men are not made to injure and annoy one another; but to assist them: not to do harm, but to do good; not to lessen but to increase the prosperity and enjoyments of their fellow men.

41. But you are required to be just not only to the property, but to the reputation of others. A man's reputation is dearer to him than his property, and he that detracts from the good name of another is as criminal as the thief who takes his property. Say nothing of your neighbor maliciously, nor spread reports about him to lessen his reputation. On the other hand vindicate his conduct in all cases when you can do it with a clear conscience. If you cannot defend it, remain silent.

42. Nor are you to be less careful of the rights of others, than of their reputation, and property. By the laws of creation, and by our civil constitution, all men have equal rights to protection, to liberty, and to the free enjoyment of all the benefits and privileges of government. All secret attempts, by associations or otherwise to give to one set of men or one party, advantages over another, are mean, dishonorable and immoral. All secret combinations of men to gain for themselves or their party, advantages in preferments to office, are trepasses upon the rights of others.

43. In every condition of life, and in forming your opinions on every subject, let it be an established principle in regulating your conduct, that nothing can be *honorable* which is *morally wrong*. Men who disregard or disbelieve revelation often err from the true standard of honor, by substituting public opinion or false maxims for the divine laws. The character of God, his holy attributes, and perfect law constitute the only models and rules of excellence and true honor. Whatever deviates from these models

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and rules must be wrong, and dishonorable. Crime and vice are therefore not only repugnant to duty, and to human happiness; but are always derogatory to reputation. All vice implies defect and meanness in human character.

44. In whatever laudable occupation you are destined to labor, be steady in an industrious application of time. Time is given to you for employment, not for waste. Most men are obliged to labor for subsistence; and this is a happy arrangement of things by divine appointment; as labor is one of the best preservatives both of health and of moral habits. But if you are not under the necessity of laboring for subsistence, let your time be occupied in something which shall do good to yourselves and your fellow men. Idleness tends to lead men into vicious pleasures: and to waste time is to abuse the gifts of God.

45. With most persons, the gaining of property is a primary object, and one which demands wisdom in planning business, and assiduous care, attention and industry in conducting it. But it is perhaps more difficult to keep property than to gain it; as men while acquiring property are more economical and make more careful calculations of profit and loss, than when they hold large possessions. Men who inherit large possessions are particularly liable to waste their property, and fall into poverty. The greatest hereditary estates in this country are usually dissipated by the second or third generation. The sons and grandsons of the richest men are often hewers of wood and drawers of water to the sons and grandsons of their father's and grandfather's servants.

46. As a general rule in the expenditure of money, it is safest to earn money before you spend it, and to spend every year less than you earn. By this means, you will secure a comfortable subsistence, and be enabled to establish your children in some honest calling; at the same time, this practice will furnish the means of contributing to the wants of the poor, and

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to the promotion of institutions for civilizing and christianizing heathen nations. This is a great and indispensable duty.

47. In your mode of living, be not ambitious of adopting every extravagant fashion. Many fashions are not only inconvenient and expensive, but inconsistent with good taste. The love of finery is of savage origin; the rude inhabitant of the forest delights to deck his person with pieces of shining metal, with painted fethers, and with some appendage dangling from the ears or nose. The same love of finery infects civilized men and women, more or less in every country, and the body is adorned with brilliant gems and gaudy attire. But true taste demands great simplicity of dress. A well made person is one of the most beautiful of all God's works, and a simple, neat dress displays this person to the best advantage.

48. In all sensual indulgences be temperate. God has given to men all good things for use and enjoyment; but enjoyment consists in using food and drink only for the nourishment and sustenance of the body, and all amusements and indulgences should be in moderation. Excess never affords enjoyment; but always brings inconvenience, pain or disease. In selecting food and drink, take such as best support the healthy functions of the body, avoid as much as possible, the stimulus of high-seasoned food; and reject the use of ardent spirits, as the most injurious and most fatal poison.

49. When you become entitled to exercise the right of voting for public officers, let it be impressed on your mind that God commands you to choose for rulers, *just men who will rule in the fear of God.* The preservation of a republican government depends on the faithful discharge of this duty; if the citizens neglect their duty and place unprincipled men in office, the government will soon be corrupted; laws will be made, not for the public good, so much as for selfish or local purposes; corrupt or in-

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competent men will be appointed to execute the laws; the public revenues will be squandered on unworthy men; and the rights of the citizens will be violated or disregarded. If a republican government fails to secure public prosperity and happiness, it must be because the citizens neglect the divine commands, and elect bad men to make and administer the laws. Intriguing men can never be safely trusted.

50. To young men I would recommend that their treatment of females should be always characterized by kindness, delicacy and respect. The tender sex look to men for protection and support. Females when properly educated and devoted to their appropriate duties, are qualified to add greatly to the happiness of society, and of domestic life. Endowed with finer sensibilities than men, they are quick to learn and to practice the civilities and courtesies of life; their reputation requires the nice observance of the rules of decorum; and their presence and example impose most salutary restraints on the ruder passions and less polished manners of the other sex. In the circle of domestic duties, they are cheerful companions of their husbands; they give grace and joy to prosperity; consolation and support to adversity. When we see an affectionate wife devoted to her domestic duties, cheering her husband with smiles, and as a mother, carefully tending and anxiously guarding her children and forming their minds to virtue and to piety; or watching with conjugal or maternal tenderness over the bed of sickness; we cannot fail to number among the chief temporal advantages of christianity, the elevation of the female character. Let justice then be done to their merits; guard their purity; defend their honor; treat them with tenderness and respect.

51. For a knowledge of the human heart, and the characters of men, it is customary to resort to the writings of Shakspeare, and of other dramatic authors, and to biography, novels, tales and fictitious narra-

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tives. But whatever amusement may be derived from such writings, they are not the best authorities for a knowledge of mankind. The most perfect maxims and examples for regulating your social conduct and domestic economy, as well as the best rules of morality and religion, are to be found in the Bible. The history of the Jews presents the true character of man in all its forms. All the traits of human character, good and bad; all the passions of the human heart; all the principles which guide and misguide men in society, are depicted in that short history, with an artless simplicity that has no parallel in modern writings. As to maxims of wisdom or prudence, the Proverbs of Solomon furnish a complete system, and sufficient, if carefully observed, to make any man wise, prosperous and happy. The observation, that "a soft answer turneth away wrath," if strictly observed by men, would prevent half the broils and contentions that inflict wretchedness on society and families.

52. Let your first care, through life, be directed to support and extend the influence of the christian religion, and the observance of the sabbath. This is the only system of religion which has ever been offered to the consideration and acceptance of men, which has even probable evidence of a divine original; it is the only religion that honors the character and moral government of the Supreme Being: it is the only religion which gives even a probable account of the origin of the world, and of the dispensations of God towards mankind; it is the only religion which teaches the character and laws of God, with our relations and our duties to him: it is the only religion which assures us of an immortal existence; which offer the means of everlasting salvation, and consoles mankind under the inevitable calamities of the present life.

53. But were we assured that there is to be no future life, and that men are to perish at death like

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the beasts of the field; the moral principles and precepts contained in the scriptures ought to form the basis of all our civil constitutions and laws. These principles and precepts have truth, immutable truth, for their foundation; and they are adapted to the wants of men in every condition of life. They are the best principles and precepts, because they are exactly adapted to secure the practice of universal justice and kindness among men; and of course to prevent crimes, war and disorders in society. No human laws dictated by different principles from those in the gospel, can ever secure these objects. All the miseries and evils which men suffer from vice, crime, ambition, injustice, oppression, slavery and war, proceed from their despising or neglecting the precepts contained in the Bible.

54. As the means of temporal happiness, then, the christian religion ought to be received, and maintained with firm and cordial support. It is the real source of all genuine republican principles. It teaches the equality of men as to rights and duties; and while it forbids all oppression, it commands due subordination to law and rulers. It requires the young to yield obedience to their parents, and enjoins upon men the duty of selecting their rulers from their fellow citizens of mature age, sound wisdom and real religion— "men who fear God and hate covetousness." The ecclesiastical establishments of Europe which serve to support tyrannical governments, are not the christian religion, but abuses and corruptions of it. The religion of Christ and his apostles, in its primitive simplicity and purity, unencumbered with the trappings of power and the pomp of ceremonies, is the surest basis of a republican government.

55. Never cease then to give to religion, to its institutions and to its ministers your strenuous support. The clergy in this country are not possessed of rank and wealth; they depend for their influence on their talents and learning, on their private vir-

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tues and public services. They are the firm supporters of law and good order, the friends of peace, the expounders and teachers of christian doctrines, the instructors of youth, the promoters of benevolence, of charity, and of all useful improvements. During the war of the revolution, the clergy were generally friendly to the cause of the country. The present generation can hardly have a tolerable idea of the influence of the New England clergy, in sustaining the patriotic exertions of the people, under the appalling discouragements of the war. The writer remembers their good offices with gratitude. Those men therefore who attempt to impair the influence of that respectable order, in this country, attempt to undermine the best supports of religion; and those who destroy the influence and authority of the christian religion, sap the foundations of public order, of liberty and of republican government.

56. For instruction then in social, religious and civil duties resort to the scriptures for the best precepts and most excellent examples for imitation. The example of unhesitating faith and obedience in Abraham, when he promptly prepared to offer his son Isaac, as a burnt offering, at the command of God, is a perfect model of that trust in God which becomes dependent beings. The history of Joseph furnishes one of the most charming examples of fraternal affection and of filial duty and respect for a venerable father, ever exhibited in human life. Christ and his apostles presented, in their lives, the most perfect example of disinterested benevolence, unaffected kindness, humility, patience in adversity, forgiveness of injuries, love to God and to all mankind. If men would universally cultivate these religious affections and virtuous dispositions, with as much diligence as they cultivate human science, and refinement of manners, the world would soon become a terrestrial paradise.

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THE

FAREWELL ADDRESS

OF

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

FRIENDS AND FELLOW CITIZENS,

The period for a new election of a citizen, to administer the executive government of the United States, being not far distant, and the time actually arrived, when your thoughts must be employed in designating the person who is to be clothed with that important trust, it appears to me proper, especially as it may conduce to a more distinct expression of the public voice, that I should now apprise you of the resolution I have formed, to decline being considered among the number of those out of whom a choice is to be made. I beg you, at the same time, to do me the justice to be assured, that this resolution has not been taken, without a strict regard to all the considerations appertaining to the relation which binds a dutiful citizen to his country; and that, in withdrawing the tender of service which silence in my situation might imply, I am influenced by no diminution of zeal for your future interest; no deficiency of grateful respect, for your past kindness; but am supported by a full conviction that the step is compatible with both.

2. The acceptance of, and continuance hitherto in, the office to which your suffrages have twice called me, have been a uniform sacrifice of inclination to the opinion of duty, and to a deference for what appeared to be your desire. I constantly hoped, that it would have been much earlier in my power, consistently with motives which I was not at liberty to disregard, to return to that retirement from which I had been reluctantly drawn. The

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strength of my inclination to do this, previous to the last election, had even led to the preparation of an address to declare it to you; but mature reflection on the then perplexed and critical posture of our affairs with foreign nations, and the unanimous advice of persons entitled to my confidence, impelled me to abandon the idea.

3. I rejoice that the state of your concerns, external as well as internal, no longer renders the pursuit of inclination incompatible with the sentiments of duty, or propriety; and am persuaded, whatever partiality may be retained for my services, that in the present circumstances of our country, you will not disapprove my determination to retire.

4. The impressions with which I first undertook the arduous trust, were explained on the proper occasion. In the discharge of this trust, I will only say, that I have with good intentions, contributed towards the organization and administration of the government, the best exertions of which a very fallible judgment was capable. Not unconscious, in the outset, of the inferiority of my qualifications, experience in my own eyes, perhaps still more in the eyes of others, has strengthened the motive to diffidence of myself; and, every day, the increasing weight of years admonishes me more and more that the shade of retirement is as necessary to me as it will be welcome. Satisfied that if any circumstances have given peculiar value to my services, they were temporary, I have the consolation to believe, that while choice and prudence invite me to quit the political scene, patriotism does not forbid it.

5. In looking forward to the moment, which is intended to terminate the career of my public life, my feelings do not permit me to suspend the deep acknowledgment of that debt of gratitude which I owe to my beloved country, for the many honors it has conferred upon me; still more for the steadfast confidence with which it has supported me; and for the opportunities I have thence enjoyed of manifesting my inviolable attachment, by services faithful and persevering, though in usefulness unequal to my zeal. If benefits have resulted to our country from these services, let it always be remembered to your praise and as an instructive example in our annals,

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that under circumstances in which the passions, agitated in every direction, were liable to mislead, amidst appearances sometimes dubious—vicissitudes of fortune often discouraging—in situations in which not unfrequently want of success has countenanced the spirit of criticism—the constancy of your support was the essential prop of the efforts, and a guaranty of the plans by which they were effected.

6. Profoundly penetrated with this idea, I shall carry it with me to my grave, as a strong incitement to unceasing vows that Heaven may contiuue to you the choisest tokens of its beneficience—that your union and brotherly affection may be perpetual—that the free constitution, which is the work of your hands, may be sacredly maintained—that its administation in every department may be stamped with wisdom and virtue—that, in fine, the happiness of the people of these States, under the auspices of liberty, may be made complete, by so careful a preservation and so prudent a use of this blessing, as will acquire to them the glory of recommending it to the applause, the affection and the adoption of every nation which is yet a stranger to it.

7. Here perhaps I ought to stop. But a solicitude for your welfare, which cannot end but with my life, and the apprehension of danger, natural to that solicitude, urge me, on an occasion like the present, to offer to your solemn contemplation, and to recommend to your frequent review, some sentiments, which are the result of much reflection, of no inconsiderable observation, and which appear to me all important to the permanency of your felicity as a People. These will be offered to you with the more freedom, as you can only see in them the disinterested warnings of a parting friend, who can possibly have no personal motives to bias his council. Nor can I forget as an encouragement to it, your indulgent reception of my sentiments on a former and not dissimilar occasion. Interwoven as is the love of liberty with every ligament of your hearts, no recommendation of mine is necessary to fortify or confirm the attachment.

8. The unity of government which constitutes you one people is also now dear to you. It is justly so; for it is a main pillar in the edifice of you real independence,

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the support of your tranquility at home, your peace abroad; of your safety; of your prosperity; of that very liberty which you so highly prize. But as it is easy to foresee, that from different causes and from different quarters, much pains will be taken, many artifices employed, to weaken in your minds the conviction of this truth; as this is the point in your political fortress against which the batteries of internal and external enemies will be most constantly and actively (though often covertly and insidiously) directed, it is of infinite moment, that you should properly estimate the immense value of your national Union, to your collective and individual happiness; that you should cherish a cordial, habitual and immovable attachment to it; accustoming yourselves to think and to speak of it as the Palladium of your political safety and prosperity; discountenancing whatever may suggest even a suspicion that it can in any event be abandoned; and indignantly frowning upon the first dawning of every attempt to alienate any portion of our country from the rest, or to enfeeble the sacred ties which now link together the various parts.

9. For this you have every inducement of sympathy and interest. Citizens by birth or choice, of a common country, that country has a right to concentrate your affections. The name of *American*, which belongs to you in your national capacity, must always exalt the just pride of patriotism, more than any appellation derived from local discriminations. With slight shades of difference, you have the same religion, manners, habits and political principles. You have in a common cause fought and triumphed together; the Independence and liberty you possess are the work of joint councils, and joint efforts, of common danger, sufferings and success. But these considerations, however powerful they address themselves to your sensibility, are greatly outweighed by those which apply more immediately to your interest—Here every portion of our country finds the most commanding motives for carefully guarding and preserving the Union of the whole.

10. The *North*, in an unrestrained intercourse with the *South*, protected by the equal laws of a common government, finds in the productions of the latter, great ad-

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ditional resources of maritime and commercial enterprise and precious materials of manufacturing industry. The *South*, in the same intercourse, benefiting by the agency of the *North*, sees its agriculture grow and its commerce expand. Turning partly into its own channels the seamen of the *North*, it finds its particular navigation invigorated; and while it contributes, in different ways, to nourish and increase the general mass of the national navigation. it looks forward to the protection of a maritime strength, to which itself is unequally adapted. The *East*, in a like intercourse with the *West*, already finds, and in the progressive improvement of interior communications, by land and water, will more and more find a valuable vent for the commodities which it brings from abroad, or manufactures at home. The *West* derives from the *East* supplies requisite to its growth and comfort—and what is perhaps of still greater consequence, it must of necessity owe the *secure* enjoyment of indispensable *outlets* for its own productions to the weight, influence, and the future maritime strength of the Atlantic side of the Union directed by an indissoluble community of interest as ONE NATION. Any other tenure by which the *West* can hold this essential advantage, whether derived from its own separate strength, or from an apostate and unnatural connection with any foreign power, must be intrinsically precarious.

11. While then every part of our country thus feels an immediate and particular interest in Union, all the parties combined cannot fail to find in the united mass of means and efforts greater strength, greater resource, proportionably greater security from external danger, a less frequent interruption of their peace by foreign nations; and, what is of inestimable value! they must derive from Union an exemption from those broils and wars between themselves, which so frequently afflict neighboring countries, not tied together by the same government; which their own rivalships alone would be sufficient to produce but which opposite foreign alliances, attachments and intrigues would stimulate and embitter. Hence, likewise they will avoid the necessity of those overgrown military establishments, which, under any form of government, are inauspicious to liberty,

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and which are to be regarded as particularly hostile to Republican Liberty; in this sense it is, that your Union ought to be considered as a main prop of your liberty, and that the love of the one ought to endear to you the preservation of the other.

12. These considerations speak a persuasive language to every reflecting and virtuous mind, and exhibit the continuance of the *Union* as a primary object of patriotic desire. Is there a doubt, whether a common government can embrace so large a sphere? Let experience solve it. To listen to mere speculation in such a case were criminal. We are authorized to hope that a proper organization of the whole, with the auxiliary agency of governments for the respective subdivisions, will afford a happy issue to the experiment. 'Tis well worth a fair and full experiment. With such powerful and obvious motives to Union, affecting all parts of our country, while experience shall not have demonstrated its impracticability, there will always be reason to distrust the patriotism of those, who in any quarter may endeavor to weaken its bands.

13. In contemplating the causes that may disturb our Union, it occurs as a matter of serious concern, that any ground should have been furnished for characterizing parties by *geographical* discriminations—*northern* and *southern*—*Atlantic* and *western*; whence designing men may endeavor to excite a belief that there is a real difference of local interest and views. One of the expedients of party to acquire influence, within particular districts, is to misrepresent the opinions and aims of other districts. You cannot shield yourself too much against the jealousies and heart burnings which spring from these misrepresentations: they tend to render alien to each other those who ought to be bound together by fraternal affection. The inhabitants of our western country have lately had a useful lesson on this head: they have seen in the negotiation by the Executive, and in the unanimous ratification by the Senate, of the treaty with Spain, and in the universal satisfaction at that event throughout the United States, a decisive proof how unfounded were the suspicions propagated among them of a policy in the General Government and in the Atlantic States, un-

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friendly to their interest in regard to the *Mississippi*: they have been witnesses to the formation of two treaties, that with Great-Britain and that with Spain, which secure to them every thing they could desire, in respect to our foreign relations, towards confirming their prosperity. Will it not be their wisdom to rely for the preservation of these advantages on the UNION by which they were procured? Will they not henceforth be deaf to those advisers, if such there are, who would sever them from their brethren and connect them with aliens.

14. To the efficacy and permanency of your Union, a government for the whole is indispensable. No alliances, however strict, between the parts, can be an adequate substitute: they must inevitably experience the infractions and interruptions which all alliances in all times have experienced. Sensible of this momentous truth, you have improved upon your first essay, by the adoption of a constitution of government better calculated than your former, for an intimate Union, and for the efficacious management of your common concerns. This government, the offspring of our own choice, uninfluenced and unawed, adopted upon full investigation and mature deliberation, completely free in its principles, in the distribution of its powers, uniting security with energy, and containing within itself a provision for its own amendment, has a just claim to your confidence and your support. Respect for its authority, compliance with its laws, acquiescence in its measures, are duties enjoined by the fundamental maxims of true liberty. The basis of our political system is the right of the people to make and alter their constitutions of government. But, the constitution which at any time exists till changed by an explicit and authentic act of the whole people, is sacredly obligatory upon all. The very idea of the power and the right of the people to establish government presupposes the duty of every individual to obey the established government.

15. All obstructions to the execution of the laws, all combinations and associations, under whatever plausible character, with the real design to direct, control, counteract, or awe the regular deliberation and action of the constituted authorities, are destructive of this fun-

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damental principle, and of fatal tendency. They serve to organize faction, to give it an artificial and extraordinary force—to put in the place of the delegated will of the nation, the will of a party, often a small but artful and enterprising minority of the community; and according to the alternate triumphs of different parties, to make the public administration the mirror of the ill-concerted and incongruous projects of faction, rather than the organ of consistent and wholesome plans digested by common councils, and modified by mutual interests. However combinations or associations of the above description may now and then answer popular ends, they are likely in the course of time and things to become potent engines, by which cunning, ambitious, and unprincipled men will be enabled to subvert the power of the people, and to usurp to themselves the reins of government; destroying afterwards the very energies which have lifted them to unjust dominion.

16. Towards the preservation of your government, and the permanency of your present happy state, it is requisite, not only that you steadily discountenance irregular oppositions to its acknowledged authority, but also that you resist with care the spirit of innovation upon its principles however specious the pretexts. One method of assault may be to effect, in the forms of the constitution, alterations which will impair the energy of the system, and thus to undermine what cannot be overthrown. In all the changes to which you may be invited, remember that time and habit are at least as necessary to fix the true character of governments, as of other human institutions—that experience is the surest standard by which to test the real tendency of the existing constitution of a country—that facility in changes upon the credit of mere hypothesis and opinion, exposes to perpetual change, from the endless variety of hypothesis and opinion; and remember especially, that for the efficient management of your common interests, in a country so extensive as ours, a government of as much vigor as is consistent with the perfect security of liberty, is indispensable. Liberty itself will find in such a government, with powers properly distributed and adjusted, its surest guardian. It is, indeed, little else than a name, where the government is too feeble to withstand the enterprises of faction, to confine each member of the society within the limits prescribed by the laws, and to

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maintain all in the secure and tranquil enjoyment of the rights of person and property.

17. I have already intimated to you, the danger of parties in the state, with particular reference to the founding of them on geographical discriminations. Let me now take a more comprehensive view, and warn you in the most solemn manner against the baneful effects of the spirit of party generally. This spirit, unfortunately, is inseparable from our nature, having its root in the strongest passions of the human mind.—It exists under different shapes in all governments, more or less stifled, controlled, or repressed; but in those of the popular form, it is seen in its greatest rankness, and is truly their worst enemy. The alternate domination of one faction over another, sharpened by the spirit of revenge, natural to party dissension, which, in different ages and countries, has perpetrated the most horrid enormities, is itself frightful despotism. But this leads at length to a more formal and permanent despotism. The disorders and miseries, which result, gradually incline the minds of men to seek security and repose in the absolute power of an individual: and sooner or later the chief of some prevailing faction, more able or more fortunate than his competitors, turns this disposition to the purposes of his own elevation, on the ruins of public liberty.

18. Without looking forward to an extremity of this kind (which nevertheless ought not to be entirely out of sight) the common and continual mischiefs of the spirit of party are sufficient to make it the interest and duty of a wise people to discourage and restrain it. It serves always to distract the public councils and enfeeble the public administration. It agitates the community with ill-founded jealousies and false alarms; kindles the animosity of one part against another, foments occasionally riot and insurrection. It opens the door to foreign influence and corruption which finds a facilitated access to the government itself, through the channels of party passions. Thus the policy and the will of one country are subjected to the policy and will of another.

19. There is an opinion that parties in free countries are useful checks upon the administration of the government, and serve to keep alive the spirit of liberty. This within certain limits is probably true; and in governments

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of a monarchical cast, patriotism may look with indulgence, if not with favor, upon the spirit of party. But in those of a popular character, in governments purely elective, it is a spirit not to be encouraged. From their natural tendency, it is certain there will always be enough of that spirit for every salutary purpose. And there being constant danger of excess, the effort ought to be by force of public opinion, to mitigate and assuage it. A fire not to be quenched; it demands a uniform vigilance to prevent its bursting into a flame, lest, instead of warming, it should consume.

20. It is important likewise, that the habits of thinking in a free country, should inspire caution, in those intrusted with its administration, to confine themselves within their respective constitutional spheres, avoiding in the exercise of the powers of one department to encroach upon another. The spirit of encroachment tends to consolidate the powers of all the departments in one, and thus to create, whatever the form of government, a real despotism. A just estimate of that love of power, and proneness to abuse it, which predominates in the human heart is sufficient to satisfy us of the truth of this position. The necessity of reciprocal checks in the exercise of political power, by dividing and distributing it into different depositories, and constituting each the guardian of public weal against invasions by others, has been evinced by experiments ancient and modern: some of them in our country and under our own eyes. To preserve them must be as necessary as to institute them. If, in the opinion of the people, the distribution or modification of the constitutional powers be in any particular wrong, let it be corrected by an amendment in the way which the constitution designates. But let there be no change by usurpation; for though this, in one instance, may be the instrument of good, it is the customary weapon by which free governments are destroyed. The precedent must always greatly overbalance in permanent evil any partial or transient benefit which the use can at any time yield.

21. Of all the dispositions and habits which lead to political prosperity, religion and morality are indispensable supports.—In vain would that man claim the tribute of patriotism, who should labor to subvert these great pillars of human happiness, these firmest props of the duties of men and citizens. The mere politician, equally with

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the pious man, ought to respect and to cherish them. A volume could not trace all their connections with private and public felicity. Let it simply be asked where is the security for property, for reputation, for life, if the sense of religious obligation desert the oaths, which are the instruments of investigation in courts of justice; and let us with caution indulge the supposition, that morality can be maintained without religion. Whatever may be conceded to the influence of refined education on minds of peculiar structure; reason and experience both forbid us to expect that national morality can prevail in exclusion of religious principle. 'Tis substantially true, that virtue or morality is a necessary spring of popular government. The rule indeed extends with more or less force to every species of free government. Who that is a sincere friend to it can look with indifference upon attempts to shake the foundation of the fabric?

22. Promote then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge.—In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened. As a very important source of strength and security, cherish public credit. One method of preserving it is to use it as sparingly as possible; avoiding occasions of expense by cultivating peace; but remembering also that timely disbursements to prepare for danger, frequently prevent much greater disbursements to repel it; avoiding likewise the accumulations of debt, not only by shunning occasions of expense, but by vigorous exertions in time of peace to discharge the debts which unavoidable wars may have occasioned, not ungenerously throwing upon posterity the burden which we ourselves ought to bear. The execution of these maxims belongs to your representatives, but it is necessary that public opinion should co-operate. To facilitate to them the performance of their duty, it is essential that you should practically bear in mind, that towards the payment of debts there must be revenue: to have revenue there must be taxes; that no taxes can be devised which are not more or less inconvenient and unpleasant; that the intrinsic embarrassment inseparable from the selection of the proper object (which is always a choice of difficulties) ought to be a decisive motive for a candid construction of the conduct of the government in making it, and for a spirit of acquiescence in the

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measures for obtaining revenue which the public emergencies may at any time dictate.

23. Observe good faith and justice towards all nations; cultivate peace and harmony with all; religion and morality enjoin this conduct; and can it be that good policy does not equally enjoin it? It will be worthy of a free, enlightened, and, at no distant period, a great nation, to give to mankind the magnanimous and too novel example of a people always guided by an exalted justice and benevolence. Who can doubt that in the course of time and things, the fruits of such a plan would richly repay any temporary advantages which might be lost by a steady adherence to it? Can it be, that Providence has not connected the permanent felicity of a nation with its virtue? The experiment, at least is recommended by every sentiment which ennobles human nature. Alas! is it rendered impossible by its vices?

24. In the execution of such a plan, nothing is more essential than that permanent inveterate antipathies against particular nations, and passionate attachments for others should be excluded; and that in place of them just and amicable feelings towards all should be cultivated. The nation which indulges towards another an habitual hatred, or an habitual fondness, is in some degree a slave. It is a slave to its animosity, or to its affection, either of which is sufficient to lead it astray from its duty and its interest. Antipathy in one nation against another disposes each more readily to offer insult and injury, to lay hold of slight causes of umbrage, and to be haughty and intractable, when accidental or trifling occasions of dispute occur. Hence frequent collisions, obstinate, envenomed and bloody contests. The nation, prompted by ill will and resentment, sometimes impels to war the government, contrary to the best calculations of policy. The government sometimes participates in the national propensity, and adopts through passion what reason would reject; at other times, it makes the animosity of the nation subservient to projects of hostility instigated by pride, ambition and other sinister and pernicious motives. The peace often, sometimes perhaps the liberty, of nations has been the victim.

25. So likewise a passionate attachment of one nation for another produces a variety of evils. Sympathy for the favorite nation, facilitating the illusion of an imaginary

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common interest, in cases where no real common interest exists, and infusing into one the enmities of the other, betrays the former into a participation in the quarrels and wars of the latter, without adequate inducement or justification. It leads also to the concessions to the favorite nation of privileges denied to others, which is apt doubly to injure the nation making the concessions; by unnecessarily parting with what ought to have been retained; and by exciting jealousy, ill will, and a disposition to retaliate, in the parties from whom equal privileges are withheld: And it gives to ambitious, corrupted, or deluded citizens (who devote themselves to the favorite nation) facility to betray, or sacrifice the interests of their own country, without odium, sometimes even with popularity; gilding with the appearances of a virtuous sense of obligation, a commendable deference for public opinion, or a laudable zeal for public good, the base or foolish compliances of ambition, corruption or infatuation.

26. As avenues to foreign influence in innumerable ways, such attachments are particularly alarming to the truly enlightened and independent patriot. How many opportunities do they afford to tamper with domestic factions, to practice the arts of seduction, to mislead public opinion, to influence or awe the public councils! Such an attachment of small or weak, towards a great and powerful nation, dooms the former to be the satellite of the latter. Against the insidious wiles of foreign influence, (I conjure you to believe me, fellow citizens) the jealousy of a free people ought to be CONSTANTLY awake; since history and experience prove that foreign influence is one of the most baneful foes of republican government. But that jealousy, to be useful, must be impartial: else it becomes the instrument of the very influence to be avoided, instead of a defense against it.—Excessive partiality for one foreign nation, and excessive dislike of another, cause those whom they actuate, to see danger only on one side, and serve to veil and even second the arts of influence on the other.—Real patriots, who may resist the intrigues of the favorite, are liable to become suspected and odious; while its tools and dupes usurp the applause and confidence of the people, to surrender their interests. The great rule of conduct for us, in regard to foreign nations, is, in extending our commercial relations, to have with them as little POLITICAL connection as possible. So far as we have al-

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ready formed engagements, let them be fulfilled with perfect good faith.—Here let us stop.

27. Europe has a set of primary interests, which to us have none, or a very remote relation. Hence she must be engaged in frequent controversies, the causes of which are essentially foreign to our concerns. Hence, therefore, it must be unwise in us to implicate ourselves by artificial ties, in the ordinary vicissitudes of her politics, or the ordinary combinations and collisions of her friendships, or enmities. Our detached and distant situation invites and enables us to pursue a different course. If we remain one people, under an efficient government, the period is not far off, when we may defy material injury from external annoyance; when we may take such an attitude as will cause the neutrality, we may at any time resolve upon, to be scrupulously respected; when belligerent nations, under the impossibility of making acquisitions upon us, will not lightly hazard the giving us provocation; when we may choose peace or war, as our interest, guided by justice, shall counsel.

28. Why forego the advantages of so peculiar a situation? Why quit our own to stand upon foreign ground? Why, by interweaving our destiny with that of any part of Europe, entangle our peace and prosperity in the toils of European ambition, rivalship, interest, humor or caprice? 'Tis our true policy to steer clear of permanent alliances, with any portion of the foreign world; so far, I mean, as we are now at liberty to do it; for let me not be understood as capable of patronizing infidelity to existing engagements. I hold the maxim no less applicable to public than to private affairs, that honesty is always the best policy. I repeat it, therefore, let those engagements be observed in their genuine sense. But, in my opinion, it is unnecessary, and would be unwise, to extend them. Taking care always to keep ourselves, by suitable establishments, on a respectable defensive posture, we may safely trust to temporary alliances for extraordinary emergencies.

29. Harmony, liberal intercourse with all nations, are recommended by policy, humanity and interest. But even our commercial policy should hold an equal and impartial hand; neither seeking nor granting exclusive favors or preferences; consulting the natural course of things; diffusing and diversifying by gentle means the streams of

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commerce, but forcing nothing; establishing with powers so disposed, in order to give trade a stable course, to define the rights of our merchants, and to enable the government to support them, conventional rules of intercourse, the best that present circumstances and mutual opinion will permit, but temporary, and liable to be from time to time abandoned or varied, as experience or circumstances shall dictate; constantly keeping in view, that 'tis folly in one nation to look for disinterested favors from another; that it must pay with a portion of its independence for whatever it may accept under that character; that by such acceptance, it may place itself in the condition of having given equivalents for nominal favors, and yet of being reproached with ingratitude for not giving more. There can be no greater error than to expect, or calculate upon real favors from nation to nation. 'Tis an illusion which experience must cure, which a just pride ought to discard.

30. In offering to you, my countrymen, these counsels of an old and affectionate friend, I dare not hope they will make the strong and lasting impression I could wish; that they will control the usual current of the passions, or prevent our nation from running the course which has hitherto marked the destiny of nations: but, if I may even flatter myself, that they may be productive of some partial benefit, some occasional good; that they may now and then recur to moderate the fury of party spirit, to warn against the mischiefs of foreign intrigues, and guard against the impostures of pretended patriotism; this hope will be a full recompense for the solicitude for your welfare, by which they have been dictated. How far, in the discharge of my official duties, I have been guided by the principles which have been delineated, the public records and other evidences of my conduct must witness to you and to the world. To myself, the assurance of my own conscience is, that I have at least believed myself to be guided by them.

31 In relation to the still subsisting war in Europe, my proclamation of the 22d of April, 1793, is the index to my plan. Sanctioned by your approving voice and by that of your representatives in both houses of congress, the spirit of that measure has continually governed me; uninfluenced by any attempt to deter or divert me from it. After deliberate examination, with the aid of the best lights

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I could obtain, I was well satisfied that our country, under all the circumstances of the case, had a right to take, and was bound in duty and interest, to take a neutral position. Having taken it, I determined, as far as should depend upon me, to maintain it, with moderation, perseverance and firmness.

32. The consideration which respects the right to hold the conduct, it is not necessary on this occasion to detail. I will only observe, that according to my understanding of the matter, that right, so far from being denied by any of the belligerent powers, has been virtually admitted by all. The duty of holding a neutral conduct may be inferred, without any thing more, from the obligation which justice and humanity impose upon every nation, in cases in which it is free to act, to maintain inviolate the relations of peace and amity towards other nations. The inducements of interest for observing that conduct will best be referred to your own reflections and experience. With me, a predominant motive has been to endeavor to gain time to our country to settle and mature its yet recent institutions, and to progress without interruption, to that degree of strength and consistency, which is necessary to give it, humanly speaking, the command of its own fortunes.

33. Tho' in reviewing the incidents of my administration, I am unconscious of intentional error: I am nevertheless too sensible of my defects not to think it probable that I have committed many errors. Whatever they may be, I fervently beseech the Almighty to avert or mitigate the evils to which they may tend. I shall also carry with me the hope that my country will never cease to view them with indulgence; and that after forty-five years of my life dedicated to its service, with an upright zeal, the faults of incompetent abilities will be consigned to oblivion, as myself must soon be to the mansions of rest. Relying on its kindness in this as in other things, and actuated by that fervent love towards it, which is so natural to a man, who views in it the native soil of himself and his progenitors for several generations; I anticipate with pleasing expectation that retreat, in which I promise myself to realize, without alloy, the sweet enjoyment of partaking, in the midst of my fellow citizens, the benign influence of good laws under a free government—the ever favorite object of my heart, and the happy reward, as I trust, of our mutual cares, labors and dangers.

G. WASHINGTON.

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RECOMMENDATIONS.

We consider Dr. Webster as eminently qualified to prepare a work of this kind. His extensive acquaintance with the early history of nations, and especially our own—the result of fifty years of investigation—is the best pledge for the *accuracy* of his statements; while the personal knowledge of the events of our revolution and the establishment of our government, gives a *freshness and interest* to his narrative, which are rarely if ever to be found in the pages of a mere compiler. We therefore cordially recommend this work, as adapted to general use in families and schools.

JEREMIAH DAY, President of Yale College.
CHAUNCEY A. GOODRICH, Prof. Rhet. and Oratory, do
J. L. KINGSLEY, Prof. of the Latin Lang. and Lit. do
NATH. W. TAYLOR, Prof. Didactic Theology, do.
LEONARD BACON, Pastor First Cong. Church, N. Haven
E. A. ANDREWS, Principal, N. Haven Fem. Institute
C. A. BOARDMAN, Pastor 3d Cong. Church, N. Haven

New Haven, July 17, 1832.

NEW HAVEN, July 20, 1832.

Messrs. Durrie & Peck;

I have taken some pains to acquaint myself with the character of Dr. Webster's "History of the United States." is in my opinion, a work of great merit and admirably adapted to the purposes, alike of our public and private schools. It will not injure the reputation of its illustrious author. shall immediately recommend it to the Visiting Committee for adoption into the higher classes of the Lancasterian school.

Yours respectfully,

JOHN E. LOVELL,
Principal of the Lancasterian school.

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